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ABSTRACT

This monograph reports the recommendations developed by a national assembly sponsored by the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges with the aid of the W. K. Kellogg Foundation to consider issues and problems affecting lifelong education. An initial paper by Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr., outlines the purposes of the assembly in relation to the changing objectives of community college district systems. In a second paper, Harold L. Hodgkinson projects what education will look like in 1985 in terms of differential fertility, federalization of programs, the segmented education market, faculty diversification, and the costs of education. Herbert E. Striner discusses the pay-off of lifelong education and training as reflected in national capital investment and productivity, and in inmate training programs. Penelope L. Richardson appraises lifelong learning and politics based on her experience as former director of HEW's Lifelong Learning Project. In another paper, R. D. Justice and Jacquilyn Amperse explore obstacles to addressing the needs of the adult, part-time evening student. S. V. Martorana and Wayne D. Smutz review the official legislative policies of several states in regard to lifelong learning. In a final paper, Robert H. McCabe evaluates the restructuring of community colleges for lifelong education in terms of funding, educational attitudes, personnel policies, facilities, and program organization. (MB)

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POLICIES FOR LIFELONG EDUCATION

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Report of the 1979 Assembly
American Association of Community and Junior Colleges

POLICIES FOR LIFELONG EDUCATION

Report of the 1979 Assembly
American Association of Community and Junior Colleges

Edited by Jamison Gilder

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and Junior Colleges

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Foreword: A Statement on Lifelong Learning

James B. Hunt, Jr.

Since the proposal for this lifelong education project of the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges cited me and our state's Community College System, let me begin here. As Lieutenant Governor and a member of the State Board of Education, I offered a resolution in late 1975 to the Board which charged a blue ribbon commission with "a new examination of the system's role in the total educational picture for approximately the next two decades." Remembering then that our 12-year-old system was operating 57 institutions which served more than a half-million people, I proposed that we "turn our faces to the future and develop a Community College Blueprint that builds on the past and gives direction for tomorrow's Community College System."

The six broad goals which were identified in early 1977 and earmarked to receive major emphasis during the next 20 years all have a common thread of lifelong education. Under the report heading of "Total Education: The Duty of the State," these six goals dealt with economic progress and work force development, a right to education, a literate adult populace, an enlightened and responsive citizenry, cultural advancement, and achieving excellence.

In a recent study, we found that our student profile had changed dramatically since our be-

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James B. Hunt, Jr., Governor of North Carolina, has been influential in leading lifelong education efforts in his state. This paper was prepared especially for the Assembly and this publication.

ginning days of the late 1950's and early 1960's. The typical student in our Community College System is no longer the recent high school graduate; rather, he or she is most likely to be 28 years old, married, living at home with his or her spouse and children, and enrolled for one or two courses. They come from every social and economic level, attend for a wide variety of reasons, and represent lifelong education in action.

Although we are currently updating our student profile information, we know that the trend is for the student to be older, married, working full-time, attending classes part-time in the day or evening, would not have continued his or her education had it not been for the presence of a community college or technical institute within easy driving distance, and is continuing in school for the primary reasons of earning more money, getting a better job, and/or learning more things of interest.

Certainly, this information is the basis for changes in operational policies. *These new policies must accommodate the changing educational needs and interests of all our citizens.*

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Moving on to another emphasis, I'd like to discuss what we are doing about one of the six goals established by the Community College Commission: to eliminate illiteracy among the adult population of North Carolina.

Functional illiteracy in our state is a very serious problem. Sixty-three percent of our adult population has not completed high school. In numbers, this means 1.8 million adults cannot read and write well enough to function competently in today's complex society. These citizens either do not or cannot exert a large degree of control over their lives; they lack the everyday survival skills needed to do many routine tasks, such as reading road signs, looking up telephone numbers, budgeting their financial resources, and filling out job application forms. Low self-confidence or self-esteem results. This personal

handicap, coupled with the inability to read and write well, makes obtaining and retaining a job extremely difficult. They face tremendous problems in providing for their families and in adequately handling various domestic, social, and legal situations. They include, too, those thousands who crowd our prisons—victimized, in part, by ignorance and illiteracy.

The need for a more educated adult population in the marketplace emphasizes the increased need for lifelong learning. North Carolina is pursuing and attracting highly sophisticated and technically complex industries. As a result, there is a growing demand for a better trained, more educated adult population to fill the jobs made available in these industries. Simply stated, if we do not provide these new industries with the kind of skilled employees they need, the industries will not locate or prosper in North Carolina.

What are we doing about this? In addition to the 93,000 adults who are enrolled in our Community College System in either Adult Basic Education or the Adult High School or General Education Development programs, we are experimenting with a special community-based Adult Basic Education program at nine institutions. This effort to test and revise a functional literacy curriculum is being monitored very carefully with a formal evaluation component being a part of this project.

As you can see, we are working to assure that all North Carolinians will have acquired the basic skills of reading, writing, and computation *and* can use these skills in all kinds of life situations so that they are effective, productive, and responsible members of society—individuals who have appropriate control over their lives.

Turning to another effort in our Community College System to facilitate lifelong learning opportunities, a consortium of ten institutions is engaged in the "North Carolina Rural Renaissance Project." This effort responds to surveys

which indicate that a high percentage of adults want to take the many kinds of courses offered by community colleges but cannot do so because a commitment to a regular class schedule conflicts with their jobs or family responsibilities. Many do not possess the necessary transportation or are prohibited by the cost. Others just cannot overcome the personal and psychological barriers which make on-campus learning impossible.

Advancing the philosophy that "if students can't come to college, take the college to the students," the Rural Renaissance Consortium is seeking ways to deliver instruction at times and places convenient to all would-be learners. Their efforts have revealed that our society has more technology than educators have been able to use.

Rural Consortium

Technology can overcome the inconvenient time and place problems cited by adults who want and need the educational opportunities offered by community colleges. For example, video recorders are being sold now, and their prices are falling even as their capabilities are being improved. Compressed video transmission, which permits the over-the-air transmission of a 30-minute program in eight seconds or 40 hours of instruction in an hour, is a demonstrated fact. These programs, received and stored for later playback in real time over a television set with full learner control, offer exciting possibilities.

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Recognizing the potential of this technology in delivering low-cost instruction, the Rural Renaissance Consortium is producing more than 220 instructional modules useful now on ordinary slide-tape and video-tape equipment. These modules are adaptable to compressed time transmission as well as standard television delivery and storage.

But this is only a start. The educational potential of emerging home video technology can be tapped only through the development of literally thousands of instructional modules—that are re-

lated to problems faced daily by that very large population of would-be learners.

Courses using modern delivery systems may well be the only practical means of achieving the goal of lifelong learning. Soaring energy and construction costs along with dwindling energy supplies dictate alternatives to the traditional brick-and-mortar, concrete-and-asphalt approach to educational opportunity.

Before ending, I want to share briefly three new programs which are just under way in our Elementary and Secondary School System. They complement the concept of lifelong learning and are acts ratified by our 1977 General Assembly.

The first act provides for the adoption and use of tests to assure that high school graduates possess those skills and that knowledge necessary to function independently and successfully in assuming the responsibilities of citizenship. The first tests were administered in the fall of 1978 to all eleventh grade students and will be continued annually.

A companion act provides for annual testing in the first, second, third, sixth, and ninth grades. The intent here is to help local school systems and teachers identify and correct student needs in basic skills. These tests were first administered during the spring of 1978.

It is my conviction that these two testing programs in the Elementary and Secondary School System for youth, along with the functional literacy education program in the Community College System for adults, are the primary efforts needed to make and keep North Carolina citizens not only competent in reading, writing, and computation but successful in the daily living skills in consumer education, job knowledge, family living, home management, and civic responsibility.

The third program, called the "Community Schools Act," has as its purpose to encourage

greater community involvement in the public schools and greater community use of public school facilities. The North Carolina Legislature has provided most of the funds for each local school system to employ a community schools coordinator whose responsibility is to promote and direct maximum use of the public schools and their facilities as centers for community development.

A second conviction I have is this: With adult education programs available to our citizens through the communities of 57 technical institutes and community colleges, as well as through the communities of 145 school systems, accessible and lifelong learning opportunities for North Carolinians will become a rapid reality.

New School Efforts

In closing, I commend the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges for its leadership in dealing with the first order of business in ensuring lifelong learning opportunities for every American—making certain that the educational institution policies for such are conducive for our adult citizens. Additionally, I applaud the W.K. Kellogg Foundation for its financial support of this effort.

Finally, the bottom line had better be this: Adult, tax-paying Americans attending our educational institutions will find the same quality of instruction, facilities, counseling, and other services being made available, regardless of time—day or night—or methods of delivery.

Introduction

The American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, with the aid of the W.K. Kellogg Foundation of Battle Creek, Michigan, has undertaken responsibility to advance lifelong education through the development of more favorable policy frameworks. A three-year "Policies for Lifelong Education" project is being conducted to direct the Association toward this goal.

Building on research and information gathered in the initial stages of the effort, the project designed a national assembly for the consideration of current issues and problems affecting lifelong education—and to make specific recommendations for policy change and expansion. Influential educators and other opinion leaders came together for the Assembly at Airlie House in Warrenton, Virginia, January 8-10, 1979.

This monograph reports the recommendations that were developed by the Assembly. At the opening session, Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr., Patricia

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Cross, Rexford Moon, and Linda Hartsock described their reactions to the background issue papers which had been prepared and distributed in advance and which are included in this publication. The second day was devoted to small group discussions. We are indebted to the small group leaders, Jean Netherton, Dale Parnell, Forest Etheredge, William Keim, and Norman Watson; and to the group recorders, Brian Donnelly, Robert Sullins, John Cavan, Suzanne Fletcher, and James Gollattscheck, for their special collaboration in the assembly process. Following a full-group discussion and response session led by Roger Yarrington, an integrated statement of the groups' recommendations was drafted by George Vaughan. The draft report was reviewed in detail by Assembly participants at a lively closing session, and the final report is included here.

The background issue papers discussed the future array of options, economics, political strategies, student needs, state provisions, and governance changes needed to promote lifelong education. Other background materials provided to participants in advance of the Assembly were *Continuing Education as a National Capital Investment* by Herbert Striner and *It Happened in Bangor* (proceedings of a conference on community services through community colleges), edited by Robert Rue. Martha Turnage played a very significant role in the selection and coordination of authors of the issue papers. She was also responsible for much of the Assembly planning, and was assisted by Mona Lapides.

Also assisting the Policies for Lifelong Education project is an advisory committee. Its members are Clarence Blount, Wilbur Cohen, Wade Gilley, Edmund Gleazer, James Gollattscheck, Harold Hodgkinson, Gloria Johnson, Roby Kidd, Norman Kurland, Carrie Meek, Jules Pagano, John Roueche, Robert Waggener, and Norman Watson.

We greatly appreciate the efforts of each of these individuals, the authors, planners, group leaders and recorders. We are also grateful to each of the Assembly participants for their contributions to the final report. Publication of this book—and sharing it with you for study and action—was made possible by the W.K. Kellogg Foundation and the Carl and Lily Pforzheimer Foundation, and we are exceedingly thankful for their assistance.

Jamison Gilder

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Purposes of the Assembly

Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr.

The Assembly, as a part of Association functions, grew out of a national study of community colleges and their environment in 1970-71. One of the needs identified by the study was for discussion of social issues that concern member colleges. The Assembly was created by the Board of Directors to meet this need, and the W.K. Kellogg Foundation initially provided financial support. Clifford Nelson, president of the American Assembly, provided advice based on his experience with that body which was, to a significant degree, our model.

The Assembly is useful to AACJC in determining its course. The first invitees are the 30 members of the Board of Directors. Here they have opportunity to consider matters of educational policy away from the diversions of association budgets and operations. And they can do that in a context of a larger group qualified to contribute to the matters under consideration.

Assembly success is based upon a number of things—a significant and timely topic, an appropriate mix of participants, substantial papers distributed well in advance of the meetings, a careful reading of the papers by participants, board involvement in deliberations, and a set of recommendations that accurately reflect the sense of the group.

The Assembly is expected to say something of value to people who can *do* something about the topic addressed. That is an important assumption that should be stressed. We meet in an expectation that we are more than reactors, that we ought to do more than reactors, that we ought to do more than merely respond. We can affect what happens.

That keynote was sounded at the first assembly; the topic was *Educational Opportunity for All: An Agenda for National Action*. At the time the steering committee met to choose the topic, Congress had before it the Educational Amendments of 1972. Confronting educators was the obvious task of ordering priorities for a Congress which had turned its attention to postsecondary education and its needs. The Assembly declared this among its commitments:

> Above all things, be flexible and responsive to change, in a continuing effort to provide more effective educational services. This requirement goes beyond mere reaction to changes in societal demands: we must also serve as initiators of change and new ideas in our communities. We must provide leadership to assist communities in determining their educational priorities as well as to respond to them.

That statement was made in times that may have been somewhat less demanding for educators than the present, but it was true then and it is true now. We can serve as initiators of change and new ideas in our communities and assist

communities in determining educational priorities. In the words of the American Council of Life Insurance, we can help shape the future—not just wait for it to happen. In distributing to its member companies a series of *Trend Analysis Reports* with regard to change in education, employment, family organization, and views toward the life cycle, the Council asserts:

> A major underlying assumption of the Trend Analysis Program is that the future is not set in concrete....there are numerous variables that operate to alter straight line projections. Some are positive intervening forces, some are negative. Whether we realize it or not, this business is one of them. It is within our collective power, and to some extent our individual powers, to mold many of the trends we monitor into forces for a better future, or, for that matter, a worse future.

I propose that we accept this affirmation to undergird our work together.

Affecting What Happens

I also suggest that we envision the job to be done before we discuss tools for the job. I am impressed by frequent calls for institutions to redefine their missions in the light of changing circumstances. Although adaptation is undoubtedly called for, we can easily become preoccupied with the organization, the school, the college, the university, the mechanism. Much of the discussion today about institutional missions deals with the task assigned before there is reasoned consideration of the work to be done. Organizational forms derive appropriately from the nature of the tasks. I found a good example of what I mean in the revised mission statement of one of our colleges. A few years ago the statement of institutional purpose read:

> The purpose of the Community College District is to provide occupational education, transfer education, general education, guid-

ance and counseling, and continuing education, etc..

Systemwide objectives include:

1. To provide program of transfer education
2. To provide program of adult continuing education
3. To provide program of career education
4. To provide program of community services, etc.

Now the mission statement and systemwide objectives read:

The mission of this district is to identify the educational and cultural needs of the adults in its community and, to the extent possible and appropriate, meet those needs by providing and fostering cultural activities and by offering access to lifelong learning opportunities in occupational, college transfer, and general education...

Systemwide objectives include:

1. To identify and assess the learning and cultural needs of the community's adult population.
2. To provide programs for intellectual, cultural, social, emotional and physical development and enrichment.
3. To provide opportunities for personal counseling and career guidance augmented by specialized services, such as health, financial, legal, job placement, housing, tutoring.
4. To provide programs of occupational education in preparation for career entry and for upgrading work skills, etc.

It is my impression that we are more proficient in organizing and operating our institutions than we are in reading the signs of the times and

understanding and communicating the implications of our institutions. A basic problem we face is the consequent inability to describe to policy makers rapid change in our environment requiring recurrent examination of the policy framework through which educational institutions function.

Learning and Culture

If our point of beginning can be an examination of learning and cultural needs of the community's adult population, we may find common ground for discussion and a basis for collective effort.

A word about common ground and collective effort. Assembled under this roof we have an unusual array of advocates of lifelong learning. We are of the labor unions, industry, university extension, adult education, brokering, military, aging, international adult educators, federal and state agencies, publications, broadcasters, accrediting organizations, evening students, community educators, foundations, community colleges. Why is AACJC the sponsor of this meeting when many of the organizations named could have done so?

It is not necessary to make the case for community colleges as community-based centers for lifelong education with this assembly. As research has indicated, "continuing education for part-time, adult students has become the dominant function of community colleges."

But we have found that the educational policy often does not acknowledge the emerging reality of lifelong education. Incidentally, we are well aware of the semantic mine fields that confront us in this field. We are aware of concerns that the vitality of lifelong learning could be snuffed out by the heavy hand of institutionalized education. But community colleges *are* educational institutions. They ought to nurture and stimulate lifelong learning and also provide opportunities for lifelong education.

In our work in this field we have made some discoveries.

1. There is need to identify policies that not only allow, but also facilitate services for lifelong learning.
2. There is confusion over institutional roles. We hold that all resources should be used to the fullest extent possible. Therefore, it is necessary to work out appropriate relationships among and between various organizations at the same time that we get a clearer picture of the total task and possible strategies.
3. It is our impression that fiscal allocation and reallocation practices have a bearing on the development of lifelong programs.
4. Public support, management practices, and professional competencies in lifelong learning services need advancement. In this connection, you may be interested in the establishment of the National Institute for the Management of Lifelong Learning in Postsecondary Education at Harvard University.
5. Taxpayers and legislators require evidence that lifelong education is of real value and deserves high priority in a time of tight budgets. Measures of learning, productivity, and outcome are needed that have meaning for the public.

AACJC has secured funds from the W.K. Kellogg Foundation to step up its developmental work in this field with concentration on the policy framework. It is our aim to formulate recommendations and present these vigorously to specific agencies and persons to change those situations where lifelong education practices are impeded by the legal or policy framework. Our objective is the advancement of lifelong frameworks. We also aim to work with others in

development of a rationale for lifelong education and cooperative approaches at the community level.

This assembly is a significant part of that program. So we are here to address several simply-put, straightforward questions—Lifelong education: What are you talking about? Who's it for? Who should benefit? Who should provide it? Who should pay for it?

Before leaving here together, we will develop a statement that deals with those questions and is addressed to people who can facilitate the change for which we call.

Frustration and Invention

Just one more word. Writers are having a field day interpreting the significance of Proposition 13 and similar movements. Some pundits see our society moving rapidly to the right with a curtailment of public services. It is safe to say that values appear to be changing—that society is not the same as it was in this country in the 1960's and that it will be different by the early 1980's. Planners and administrators face some frustration under these circumstances, but I have discovered a couple of helpful insights that have buoyed me up through my interesting years in the field of education. Times of frustration are also times of invention. And periods of uncertainty provide excellent opportunities for people who have a sense of direction. And we are here to experience our common interests.

What Education Will Look Like in 1985: A Future History

Harold L. Hodgkinson

DATELINE: WASHINGTON, D.C.
November 21, 1985

From our superior position of hindsight, it is easy to look back on the 1970's in the United States and learn some lessons about how difficult it is for people to assess rapid social changes when they are in the midst of the change process. Many trends were clearly visible in the seventies, but were ignored. Many of the factors at work were based on changes in the population but simple demography was quite often ignored as an explanation for problems. For example, as faith in the public schools declined in the early and middle seventies, it was thought to be a consequence of a rapid resistance to high tax levels, when actually what declined was the number of adults who had children in the public schools.

The trend toward an increasing number of women with school age children who joined the work force was also evident by the middle seventies. The decline in the size of the youth cohort has continued with us through 1984, and even now we have few expectations that the birth rate has effectively leveled off. Large numbers of women apparently do not see their future in terms of the established modes of a family and children. Career orientation has consistently increased with women, particularly those from lower socio-economic levels and minority women.

The size of the 18-22-year-old youth cohort declined from 1978 to 1983. As a result of this decline, there was a severe drop in unemployment (because most unemployed people are young) and a drastically lower crime rate (largely because most violent crimes are committed by young people who cannot get work). Because of this trend, the notion of a volunteer Army was dropped in 1982, and went instead to a dual-track system in which the volunteers made up only a small percentage of the Army, and technocrats came regularly passing through military service on their way back to jobs in major technical industries. As the huge dominant population group moved into the college years in the late sixties, we had what was called the "Greening of America." Then, in the seventies, particularly by 1979, we developed the "Graying of America." By 1984 we can see our way toward a future which could be described as the "Balding of America." This one age lump has moved through the distribution as it gets older and has taken all before it.

Differential Fertility

However, the most pervasive of the population trends ignored the longest has been the phenomenon of *differential fertility*. It was not until 1980 that people realized that early projections indicating doomsday by the year 2000 as the world over-populated itself were completely in error. Indeed, by 1979, 184 countries had

shown birth rate declines. (Even though the *rate* declined, the overall population still moved ahead, but at a drastically slowed rate.) It was not until 1980 that we understood clearly the implications of this trend. It was the white, middle class population in most of the major countries that had shown the way as far as birth declines were concerned, leaving poor people and members of racial minorities (non-whites, to be more exact) to continue their previous rates of reproduction.

Had we been more aware of these trends and their impact on society, we could have forecast our major difficulty today in 1985, which is, of course, the large number of unmotivated young people who have no particular desire to achieve or contribute to their societies' development. This is a particularly frustrating phenomenon for black, middle class people, now a majority of that particular group, as they see their young children unable to cope with demands of high achievement which have led to material benefits for many blacks in the United States. Hispanics reached much the same position by 1981. We have returned to an old truth in sociology: Social classes are far more pervasive in their impact on a culture than is either race or sex.

Partly as a result of these population trends we developed new kinds of family structures in the early eighties, particularly those in which the husband and wife team both worked in order to increase their net income. However, by 1985 with inflation still the major preoccupation of the government at state and local levels, as well as the problem that has federal officials out of office, the desire of people to be wage earners has lessened slightly, especially their desire to move up in the occupational status structure. Although there was a brief return to discipline in the public schools in 1979 and 1980 as the drop in the Scholastic Aptitude Test scores came to a halt and college grades declined, most of the

results of the minimal competency tests taken by high school seniors were discouraging. Because of inflation which undercut the value of money, the total middle class system, (based on putting the money away so that the money would be worth more tomorrow than it is today), began to collapse by 1984.

From the time of John Calvin, Max Weber, and the Protestant Ethic we have known that middle class values were solidly based on economic gain and the importance of saving money in anticipation that it would be worth more in the future than the present. This middle class value was completely destroyed by 1980, and we now find people making use of leisure time and spending money in much the same frantic way that people used to show in making it in the first place. It is now obvious to most of us that the problem of inflation cannot be solved from within our national boundaries; it is a global phenomenon.

Federalization Complete

By 1982, state governments had completed their establishment of the fiscal control over public systems of education leading from kindergarten through graduate school. This process, called "federalization," was dimly obvious in the late seventies as the federal government began giving more and more block grants to states, which were then administered by bureaucracies established by the state governments. Indeed, the federal establishment was roughly of the same size during the sixties and seventies while state government increased in size dramatically.

That trend continued into the eighties as more and more power over the educational program came to be vested in the state, perhaps begun in Nebraska in 1975 when the legislature considered taking unto itself the function of coordinating that state system of higher education. The 1202 Commissions which were established for the same purpose at the state level were never funded by the federal government and were eli-

minated in 1980. We know also that the notion that a federal department of education would increase the prestige and dollar value given to education by the federal government turned out to be naive. The most important dimension of this kind was the development of the first National Educational Standards Tests, handled by the Educational Testing Service in 1983.

Now that we are in 1985, it is obvious that some of the trends regarding state support for higher education were discernible in the late seventies. The most important one was that of giving up the three-tier concept of higher education—community colleges for the lower middle class and working sector of the society, state colleges which would handle the needs of most of those who would move into mid-range positions in the society, and state universities for the functions of research, teaching and leadership.

By 1982, states had discovered the essential truth of the notion that there were two, not three functions to be served in the system. The crucial factor in this development in the late seventies was, of course, the generation of student credit hours, which became even more prominent as the state measure of the quality of an educational system. This was why community colleges had so much difficulty. They were attractive to an increasing number of adults who wished to take part-time student programs.

State funds reward part-time people less effectively than they do full-time people in that the part-timer generates a complete administrative cost just as though he or she were a full-time student. Thus, the cost of providing education for part-time students is greater than the cost of providing it for one full-time student, for all four of the quarter-time students need to have their records processed, plus space in the parking lots and other services. This *administrative overhead* problem has plagued the community colleges into the eighties. The flagship universities in

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each state system did fairly well through the first of the eighties because they were able to attract a completely full-time student contingent. Now, however, they are beginning to feel the same pressures as other parts of the system as they attract more and more students over 21.

It is now obvious that enrollment declines did not close liberal arts colleges in large numbers as was expected in the late seventies. Having had advance notice, most of the colleges developed more distinctive images and more effective means of marketing their virtues, making it possible to maintain a fairly steady source of clientele, even with increased pressure from the military, proprietary institutions, and other sources seeking direct access to 18-year-olds.

Industry, of course, has had an enormous impact on the college-going cohort. With a smaller number of unemployed 18-year-olds around, most industries are now more eager than ever to grab successful high school graduates—before they can even get a college education—in order to educate them through the companies' own educational systems. By 1984, 200 major corporations had their own "universities, colleges, or centers" in which they offered education—not only in technical fields, but in writing, mathematics, art appreciation, and American history.

Segmented Market

Higher education today is a segmented market. No one buys their education all at once in a single two or four-year chunk. The vast array of technological services that struck the United States by 1980 included: video-tape cassettes, video disks, and small home computers that could easily be hooked into a central system through the telephone lines. All suggested that one should study at home. It is no longer unusual to find a college graduate who has never spent one day on campus, but rather one who worked at home in constant contact with instructors through audio and video hook-ups (as well as

access to many forms of computer-assisted instruction).

By 1984, most states had adopted minimal competency standards for the degree from community colleges and a few states have begun to mandate this for the bachelor's degree from the state four-year institutions as well as the state university systems. At the same time, we have become aware in 1985 of the importance and quality of the assessment procedures that have been developed by industry and the military, and several other sectors of our society. Some informal coordination now exists between the assessment center personnel in American industry and those in the military who are responsible for the rigorous development of literacy and competency awards. The American Association for Post Secondary Education, begun as an umbrella group in 1981, is beginning to be successful in pulling together a coalition of all those from colleges and universities, industry, and the military that are concerned about the assessment and improvement of human adult performance.

One of the hardest things for people to get used to is the fact that over 300 industries are now awarding their own degrees. Today education is seen as a social service which is owed the worker in much the same way that health care is, and in both cases industries have found it cheaper and more effective to develop their own services. Just as most major *Fortune 500* companies have replaced Blue Cross/Blue Shield plans for health care benefits for their workers with Health Maintenance Organizations that they staff themselves, so educators have discovered that many companies have developed programs of education that are superior to those offered by colleges and universities.

By 1985, it has become clear that there is a distinction between degrees (primarily a measure of time in college and credits earned) and credentials (statements of intellectual and personal

attainment and competence). Credentials transfer easily from education to the workplace and back again. They are becoming a favorite form of recording scholastic attainment. The accrediting associations, long a source of attempted harmony between various factions in education, gave way to a new system begun by the federal government in 1983 to insure the effective working relationship between education, the world of work, and the quality-of-life-dimension of intellectual stimulation that seems necessary for leading a useful and rewarding life. As a consequence, task forces have been organized in each state—one-third businessmen, one-third educators, and one-third citizens of the state who represent interesting and stimulating intellectual attainment.

Accreditation has moved from the regional to the state level since 1984. The continuing education unit (which was big in the middle and late seventies) was between clear-cut credentials and degrees (which indicated time spent in educational settings) and lost what little value it had had in the interim. No successful measure of student learning has yet developed, although the credit hour has been seen to be ineffective as the measurement of what students know.

Diversification of Faculties

The faculty in higher education have become as diversified as the sources of teaching and learning. Fifty percent of American faculty in businesses, the Army, and in colleges and universities are part-time. In addition, a large number of distinguished practitioners have been appointed for short periods of time to share their expertise with students in whatever setting the students find themselves. The most important faculty case was, of course, the *Smith vs Harvard University* case in 1983, in which tenure was accepted by the Supreme Court as a valid concept, but tenure was only needed by the younger members of the faculty who usually have the most radical and difficult ideas. They, therefore,

are the people who need the most protection through such a system. The consequences of the Smith decision have been remarkable. Tenure patterns have been completely reversed in some universities and the younger faculty now have tenure while the older faculty members are on three year contracts. The Smith decision, briefly stated, determined that university and college faculty members had never been guaranteed job permanence, though they were guaranteed protection from the citizenry because of their tendency to develop radical, and hence, unpopular ideas. The principle of tenure was therefore upheld, but its application to the older ranks of the faculty turned out to be inappropriate from the Supreme Court's point of view. Compared to the Bakke and Rodriguez cases, the *Smith vs Harvard* case provides new grounds for direct intervention on the part of the Supreme Court in the daily activities and affairs of colleges and universities.

Looking ahead to 1990 at what is likely for the future of postsecondary education in the United States, there will be an increase in the number of coalitions emerging across the various sectors that are now self-conscious about their educational involvement with adults, including the defense forces, industrially-oriented education delivered in the company (and it should be pointed out that large numbers of workers are studying liberal arts courses through instructional programs offered by the firms they work for), colleges and universities, museums, the entertainment industry, and proprietary institutions. Although the National Education Association recognized it too late, it is nevertheless true that those that teach for a living in the United States (including training as well as teaching) make up well over 20 million members of our population.

Costs of education continue to go up, but the citizenry is increasingly aware of the need for

these costs and is increasingly pleased with the fact that the system has direct benefits in terms of better access to the world of work and improved quality of intellectual and social life for those who continue in education. The greatest change we can look forward to from 1985 to 1990 is that the number of places in which education can be acquired will proliferate even more. Airports now provide many areas of intellectual stimulation and advancement, just as hospital waiting rooms are equipped now with computer dial-in services for programmed instruction in short modules. A person can literally carry an education with him or her and fulfill educational requirements virtually anywhere there is either a telephone or an electric outlet.

It should be pointed out in concluding this brief essay on what education will be like in 1990 that educational associations have not adapted quickly enough to these changing coalitions. Indeed, the historic event of the period was the selling of the building at One Dupont Circle in 1983 to the National Rifle Association because the educational associations were plagued with financial problems and simply could not get their acts together. The new educational coalition—including large sponsorship and participation from the worlds of vocational education, the prestigious colleges and universities in the country, the Department of Defense, the community and training level colleges, museums—has produced a whole new approach to the problem of association loyalty and membership; and since Albert Shanker became the first president, the new coalition appears to be viable for the future.

We have discovered that, although the number of 18-year-olds has declined, the number of adults in this country who genuinely wish to and are capable of taking part in a program of lifelong learning has made the ultimate size of the post-secondary operation enormous in the United

States. There is no reason to believe that there will be any cutback, either, although the number of 18–21-year-olds will decrease consistently but predictably. For their loss, however, we can postulate a 15 percent gain in the number of adults who take courses in various kinds of credit as they move toward using education to become more literate, more concerned, more humane and happy in their work at home.

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The Pay-off of Lifelong Education and Training

Herbert E. Striner

The economic benefits of education have usually been accepted as an article of faith, not to be questioned. For those who have been interested in measuring such benefits, however, there has been the discouraging fact that data to support, test or evaluate the pay-off of lifelong education and training are monumental in magnitude. This is hardly the place to discuss sample size, cohort analysis, definitional problems of what is meant by pay-off, or opportunity costs, though all of these factors are significant in measurement.

Indeed, until recently the mountains of data and means of dealing with them have not really existed so we could test the "gut" feeling that the economic pay-off justified the educational investment by individuals or by the society at

large. But one need not always design and perform an elegant, data-supported analysis in order to obtain insights and evidence which are sufficiently meaningful for valid operational decisions. I know of no decision of any major moment which has not lacked for more time, money or information. The problem is to determine what evidence we feel is sufficiently valid and meaningful so that we can make a decision we are not significantly uncomfortable with, as professionals. I believe this standard can be met with respect to the economic pay-off with lifelong education and training. My case will rest on three types of evidence: (1) the macro or large aggregate relationship between such education and training programs and economic indicators of national well-being; (2) case histories; and (3) a theoretical model with supporting data.

National Capital Investment

My study concerned with *Continuing Education as a National Capital Investment* mentions that several countries in western Europe have accepted the philosophy of manpower as being a form of capital calling for continuous "upgrading" or investment in order to serve the skill-needs of the economy. Japan has also adopted this attitude, though in a manner more consistent with its own industrial tradition and culture. That is, in Japanese industry the tradition of lifelong employment can only work because of the assumed responsibility by management to provide for continuous retraining of all employees, especially as new production techniques and new product lines are a part of industrial growth. But this managerial philosophy is based upon an economic "fact" as well as a cultural tradition. Modern Japanese management has found that labor as a "fixed cost" makes sense, for, in the long run, this "fixed cost" must always be a source of newly acquired, necessary capital. That is, no matter what the new technology, a skilled, re-trained labor force is necessary for the new mix of production techniques.

Since continuous re-training and education are a part of West German and Japanese programs to increase productivity and minimize employment, one would expect that these two national economies have done significantly better than ours in achieving the objectives of low unemployment and high productivity. While a skilled labor force is not the only economic ingredient for national economic policies seeking to achieve these twin objectives, it is certainly a key one. There are differences between the fiscal, monetary and regulatory policies of the United States, Japan and West Germany as they affect economic growth. But all three countries have the same basic techniques in mind as they use these devices to maintain healthy economies. But Japan and West Germany, as well as the United Kingdon, France and other European nations, have one major ingredient in their package of economic policies which we do not have—a capital investment program for their labor forces. I believe this is *the* ingredient which is key to their excellent employment and productivity performance. How well have they done relative to our performance?

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Productivity as an Indicator

Let's look at productivity first, since this is one of the better overall economic indicators of how efficiently a nation is combining all of its resources in order to produce its goods and services. For the ten-year period 1967–77, Japan led with an increase of 107%. France was second with 72%; Germany, a close third, 70%; Italy, fourth with 62%; Canada, fifth with 43%; and tied for last in this group are Great Britain and the United States with 27% each. During the current year, we expect an almost zero increase in the United States, about a 5.5% increase in Germany, and about 6% in Japan. During the past decade, the rate of productivity increase in the United States has averaged around 2.5%.

Now let's look at our unemployment rate and how it compares with two industrial giants, West

Germany and Japan, whose economies are most like ours. The United States rate has been as low as 4.9% since 1970, but has averaged around 6.2% since then, with a current rate about 6.0%. In 1975 we hit a high of close to 9%. The German rate of unemployment averaged 1.1% during the 1970-74 period, and 4% since, with a current rate of about 3.9%. In Japan, the 1970-74 rate averaged 1.6%; during 1975-77 it averaged 1.9%. Thus far in 1978, the rate has averaged 2%.

The pay-off of the lifelong learning concept is difficult to assess with regard to the percent of the achievement of higher productivity and lower unemployment rate which is credited to it in the policies of Germany and Japan. But discussions with economists and industry leaders in the two countries leave no doubt that they feel it has been critical to their fine economic performance. And of course, here at home, inflation, which results from low productivity and idle, unemployable workers who lack the skills to fill vacant jobs, has cost us dearly in higher prices for commodities and services. In addition, annual unemployment costs of $12–15 billion plus CETA program costs of around $15 billion are payments which add to the fueling of inflation and curtailment of funds for more productive, needed programs for housing, health and education.

An Economic Pay-Off

Permit me now to shift to the micro side of this question of pay-off. How does re-training and education provide an economic pay-off to the individual? To gain some idea of how effective a training and education program can be, I have obtained data on the Opportunities Industrialization Center program in Washington, D.C. As many of you know, the Opportunities Industrialization Center program was started in the early 1960s in Philadelphia under the leadership of the Reverend Leon Sullivan as an effort to provide basic educational skills as well as job skills to the so-called hard core unemployables

in our cities. The OIC program is now operating in 140 cities in the United States with an annual expenditure of about $65 million.

During recent years, the number of placements after training made by OIC in the Washington area have been approximately 1200 per year. This number represents approximately 80% of intake. Of the 1200 placements, approximately 85% are on the same job after six months. The overwhelming majority of these individuals have been on welfare and have been unemployed for at least ten weeks prior to entry into the program. The average trainee age at present is 27; during recent years this age level has been dropping. At the time of entry into the OIC training program an average level of income has been approximately $1750. The average annual salary at placement, following training, has been $6900. In order to obtain some indication of the return on the government investment, an OIC study recently undertaken for a specific period of time indicated that for an annual program consisting of $1.4 million, the total income for those placed who were trained during the period came to $8.4 million. Since the $1.4 million were all government funds, it is interesting to estimate the actual return to the government on that investment. If one assumes a 30% tax rate, then approximately $2.5 million was returned in the form of taxes. But in addition to this, for the 1400 people trained there was an additional saving in welfare and insurance payments of approximately $1.7 million. Hence a total return of approximately $4.2 million has to be compared with a total cost of $1.4 million, resulting in *a benefit to cost ratio of 3 to 1*.

There is an additional type of pay-off on an educational investment which can follow high school. Very little attention is paid by most educators and economists to this potential since it is truly out of the mainstream of our usual concern. But an effective training program can

offset the social and economic cost of hundreds of thousands of adults each year whose lack of education and marketable skills drain our society of far more than unemployment insurance, tax income or productivity. These adults are a part of our "forgotten labor force." I am referring to the inmates of federal, state and local prisons. The pay-off, social and personal, of lifelong education which results when these individuals are converted from an inmate status to a productive employee status can be quite substantial.

Any evaluation of training programs for inmates is subject to many questions and problems. For example, various studies have shown that most prison training programs are less effective than outside training programs. That is, the placement potential is less and recidivism is higher. In addition, it is well known that counseling is an essential component of an education and training program for inmates, whether the program is "inside" or "outside." In the literature in the field of corrections, there is a limited evaluation of the effect of education and training on recidivism, and the pay-off is usually confined to the savings resulting when arrest, court and incarceration costs are lessened by the non-return of ex-inmates.

Inmate Training Programs

During the past decade, a number of Department of Labor experimental projects at correctional institutions in Alabama, New York, South Carolina and Washington, D.C. have shown that *educational and training programs do, indeed, cut recidivism* dramatically. One illustrative project I would like to refer to is Project Crossroads (PC), a project for first-offenders in the District of Columbia. This project, begun in 1968 and extended into mid-1970, is of very special interest because it involved a methodology which used a control group. Thus, its findings have a more valid basis than most similar studies regarding the pay-off of training programs for inmates.

Project Crossroads was designed as an alternative to the traditional judicial and correctional systems for individuals with no previous adult convictions. With intensive counseling, remedial education and training and placement activities (as well as other supportive services), over a three-month period following arrest but prior to trial, it was supposed to attempt to re-orient the individual before the individual became committed to crime as a way of life. If at the end of a 90-day counseling and training period the defendant exhibited satisfactory progress with regard to the possibility of a good job placement and healthier attitude to his future, upon PC recommendation the court was to dismiss the charges. The rationale for the project was that it was a well known fact that offenders committed to a correctional institution most often do not receive the kind of services that are effective in helping them to avoid repetition of criminal behavior. Life in prison or a correctional institution was seen as embittering and hardening individuals, particularly if their experience in confinement was nonproductive and did not involve education or training. PC was seen as an effort to effect behavior patterns of first offenders and move them in a different direction.

If this effort was to be judged as successful, then there were to be three clear benefits. The first benefit was seen as an immediate return to society resulting in a saving of court and incarceration costs. The second benefit—employment earnings—was to be a measure of the increase in the participant's contributions to social welfare. It was assumed that earnings were a valid measure of an individual's productivity and that this in turn was a reflection of his contribution to the economy and the society. The third benefit was to be a reduced rate of recidivism, or rate of rearrests.

The total number of trainees in PC was 460 and the average costs per participant in the pro-

gram was $506.52. About 74% of the participants were favorably terminated while 26% were terminated unfavorably, that is, they did not last out for the entire three months of program participation.

First, if one looks at the comparison of percent of participants in the project employed at the time of entrance into the project and the percentage of those employed a year following the project or termination, the results are very encouraging. For example, one year prior to PC, approximately 31% of the participants were employed more than 80% of the year. One year after termination, however, almost 50% of the participants were employed 80% or more.

With regard to wages, at the time of intake into the program approximately 21% of the participants had hourly wages in excess of $2 per hour. One year following completion of the project, however, 44% of the participants were receiving wages over $2 per hour. Interestingly, when one compares the 74% of the participants who completed the project as opposed to the 26% who did not complete the project, about 52% of the successful completers were receiving an average wage of over $2 per hour, while less than 21% of the participants who did not complete the project favorably were receiving more than $2 per hour.

In a summary in the report concerned with the employment and wages aspect of the evaluation, five points are made: (1) The percent of individuals employed at project termination was nearly twice as great as those employed at project intake; (2) upon termination from the project, wages and skill-levels of jobs performed had increased over measures taken at project entrance; (3) project participants were more likely to be steadily employed during the year following project termination than prior to the point of enrollment; (4) wage comparison reveals that increases occurred after Crossroads

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termination and these increases appear related more to job factors than non-job related ones; (5) all possible findings were attributable to the group of favorably terminated participants rather than those who did not terminate the project.

Adult Recidivism

But probably the most dramatic positive finding in PC had to do with adult recidivism. According to the findings, overall recidivism for the favorables was 20.13% while for the unfavorables and the control group it was over *twice* as high. Even when we combine all project participants, for those who completed the program satisfactorily as well as those who did not complete the program satisfactorily, there is still a difference of 14 percentage points between the total participants and the control group who were rearrested within 15 months after initial arrest. In terms of the actual numbers for those who were favorably terminated in the project, only 20 percent were rearrested within 15 months as contrasted with 43 percent who were rearrested within the same period of time in the control group.

These results are, of course, generalizations drawn from a highly detailed study and there are significant differences by age, race and sexual status. For example, the PC approach is least successful for those participants with extreme disadvantaged backgrounds, (either in employment or education) prior to entrance into the project—particularly the younger adults. It was felt that overall maturity is an important factor in success and this may come with age, increased responsibilities (for example, marriage), experience (for example, military training), and previous employment opportunity. This led the PC research team to speculate that individuals devoid of these characteristics and history might have to be assigned to a specific component within a project. It is designed to serve this group with a more intensive counseling effort, coupled with incentives for educational advancement and/or short term job

experience as part of a planned entrance into a stable career. Basically, however, what PC has shown, along with evidence from the other studies which were funded by the Department of Labor at correctional institutions, is that there is a major potential pay-off for society when the adult prison population is provided with a lifelong education and training opportunity.

Other studies provide a strong basis for a positive relationship between a lower rate of unemployment and preparing inmates for *high quality* jobs. Preparing inmates for low skill and low pay jobs has no impact on unemployment. But training for and placement in good jobs does achieve a positive result, with the attendant personal and social benefits. A recent study by Philip J. Cook [1] supports this point. Based upon a sample of parolees from Massachusetts penitentiaries, he found that a public program to improve quality of jobs for released offenders could result in more stable work patterns and lower unemployment rates. From the point of view of our interest, *the most critical fact is that higher quality jobs can only result from effective training and support services!* The critical role of support services is highlighted in "Operation Pathfinder," a project operated by the Mantec Corporation in Los Angeles, from September 1969 to February 1972.

A Fundamental Relationship

Interestingly, the earlier point made in Project Crossroads that the adults seem to do better because of experiences which mature as well as experience in terms of past attachments in the labor force coincides with a point made in the development of a general model of education pay-off by Jacob Mincer. Let us now turn to the final section, which deals with a general theory in support of lifelong training and education.

In this final section, I want to treat the question of the degree to which there is reason to believe that there is a theoretical basis for a fundamental relationship between lifelong education and

training and *net* increases in individual earnings. I say net because economic gains must exceed all costs, plus a rate of return which could have been gained by alternative investments. Unless such economic criteria can be met, there must be serious question as to the social return on this use of public funds, especially if an alternative to lifelong education and training could have yielded a higher rate of return.

This subject of analysis is not new to economists and educators and has involved serious research efforts for well over 50 years. In 1927, Everett W. Lord undertook a study, *The Relation of Education and Income*, which was published in 1928. About ten years earlier, in 1917, the Office of Education prepared a bulletin, *The Money Value of Education*, which, like the Lord study, indicated that education was a fundamental cause of increasing income. The more education, the higher the income. But the methodological basis of these studies and many that followed later were highly simplistic and established correlations which ignored many critical factors, including non comparability of groups studied, inadequate samples and factors other than education which are income-affecting factors. Studies which followed usually had the same faults, though the adequacy of the data increased. But it was only recently that a landmark study, or series of studies, by Jacob Mincer began to provide results which did not incorporate the flaws of the earlier studies.

As a part of the 1975 report prepared by the National Bureau of Economic Research for the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, titled *Education, Income, and Human Behavior*[2], Mincer prepared a chapter on "Education, Experience, and the Distribution of Earnings and Employment: An Overview." In this chapter, Mincer concerns himself specifically with "education . . . as an investment in the stock of human skills or the formation of human capital .

. . ."[3] Mincer's work is the first theoretical model tested against real data which supports the proposition that lifelong education must be understood from an investment function point-of-view. Most importantly, his approach makes it possible to show the rate of return on education and training for the period between school and post-school points in time.

In his research, it is important to know the basic questions to which Mincer addressed himself as well as what he included in his definition of investment in education. Starting with the latter, he felt the earnings function had to include pre-school (home) and post-school (job) investments in addition to schooling. The questions or tasks set for the research were to determine:

1. How much of the existing inequality in the distribution of labor income can be attributed to individual differences in investment in human capital?
2. Can the intricate yet rather stable patterns of the earnings structure be understood in terms of the behavior of human capital investments?[4]

His analysis has suggested that about 60% of the inequality of distribution in 1959 annual earnings of white urban males is attributable to the distribution of human capital investments. Over periods longer than one year, the explanatory power of human capital investment is likely to be greater. Mincer feels that a great deal of the observed structure of earnings is made intelligible by such investment analysis, though not necessarily uniquely predicted by it.

What are some of the intriguing observations resulting from this analysis, as seen by Mincer?

1. The data show that the more educated *and* experienced workers receive larger annual earnings than their less skilled and experienced fellows for two reasons: Wage rates

per hour are higher and the amount of time they spend in gainful employment during the year is greater. In addition, the relative importance of employment compared with that of wage rate is greater at lower levels of schooling as well as at older ages.

2. On the whole, though the correlation is weak, there is an indication that better educated and higher experienced workers are employed in more stable industries. This correlation appears to be stronger for women than for men.

3. The less educated and less experienced members of the labor force are observed to have higher lay-off rates and unemployment rates in a cross sectional analysis and greater amplitudes of them during the business cycle. The evidence indicates in some industries that physical capital can be more easily instituted for unskilled than skilled labor.

4. Unemployment is affected not only by the incidence of job separation but also by its duration; duration of unemployment is inversely related to education and experience.

What are the implications of Mincer's work for our interest in lifelong education and training? Mincer does not deal directly with the pay-off for lifelong education and training in our words but he does in one sense. That is, when he refers to experience gained in post-school periods, he is referring to education and training gained in any number of ways just so long as it has a positive investment function. That is, just as long as it results in a greater value to the employer who is then willing to pay a higher wage and provide more stable employment. What lifelong education and training is about is the institutionalization of an investment process—which has been excessively random and dependent on an

overly narrow base of the labor force for the post-school training investment process. What we are interested in is the development of legislation and funding which provides for a broader availability, following the normal school period, of funds which permit a greater level of national investment in human capital. The micro data, macro relationships and investment model suggested by Jacob Mincer indicate a highly worthwhile economic and social rate of return.

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Lifelong Education and Politics

Penelope L. Richardson

The following ideas are conclusions based upon experience as former director of HEW's Lifelong Learning Project.

I want to make four points in this paper. First, educational "politicking" has rarely been done successfully, particularly that in behalf of adult learners. Second, as a slogan, lifelong education means anything you want it to mean; it should be used consciously, rather than treated reverentially. Third, community colleges are in an excellent position to define, exemplify, and implement the concept of lifelong education and to become national models of the concept at work. Fourth, to do so in the midst of the current craze for tax reform, they will need to be both visionary and politically astute. There are many barriers to developing federal, state, and local policies which promote lifelong education, and it will

take a combination of statesmanlike leadership and back room know-how to bring it off.

Feeble Politics of Adult Educators

Individuals who support "lifelong education" can learn from the problems of adult education professionals who, for years, have valiantly designed and provided high-quality learning opportunities for adults in the community, while never quite succeeding in effective political action for their cause. As researcher William Griffith points out in a 1976 article, "Adult Education and Politics," that it is *state and national policymakers* who determine the extent and variety of learning opportunities, the amount of financial support for such programs, and the selection of specific audiences whose needs are to be given priority. Yet, adult educators have *not* built an effective coalition with which to reach those policymakers, for some of the following reasons:

1. Those who would influence policymakers must engage in the systematic continuing education of elected officials. Adult educators are rarely well-organized enough to make an informative, well-documented case for themselves.

2. The cultivation of a legislature is itself a group process, requiring the building of coalitions and common platforms to achieve the desired impact. Adult educators have tended to be individual entrepreneurs, and foundation funding has not noticeably increased the political sophistication and effectiveness of those who received the support.
3. Adult educators have tended to avoid politics. Griffith cites Terry W. Hartle's analysis of the political influence of the cluster of national associations located at One Dupont Circle. "While educators often see politicians as unethical, poorly informed, arrogant and pragmatic, politi-

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cians as often regard educators as arrogant and sanctimonious, prone to generalities, uninterested in accountability, and skeptical of the legitimacy of the political process."

4. Adult educators from diverse institutional settings are organized into an ever-increasing number of special interest groups, most of which limit their planning and legislative concerns to the consideration of programs which are to be conducted by a single kind of institution. Efforts to cooperate have not had a great deal of impact.
5. Educators in general and adult educators in particular lack a regular forum where individuals of different viewpoints can come together to hammer out a compromise position on each political issue.
6. "New" movements in adult education, such as nontraditional education, recurrent education, and lifelong education, have not drawn their leadership from the profession of adult education and tend to act as if they've discovered or invented the new movement.

In sum, if the history of adult educators in the political arena is any example, proponents of lifelong education are likely to have a difficult time getting their political act together.

The Slogan as Barrier

Indeed, lifelong education is a more vague and diffuse concept than adult education, and one that is more difficult to implement as public policy. Lifelong education means anything you want it to mean. To visionaries and enthusiasts, it is a unifying concept under which diverse and ordinarily incompatible interest groups can join together to reform current educational practice in homes, schools, workplaces, and communities. To many politicians (adept themselves at sloganeering), lifelong education is a self-serving invention of educators who seek financial sup-

port for new adult markets to compensate for shrinking enrollments in elementary, secondary, and higher education institutions. To policy analysts and critical thinkers, lifelong education is a fuzzy shorthand, politically expedient term, offered as a solution to a clump of ill-defined problems which would be thought about more usefully if they were kept separate—age discrimination, worker alienation, rapid social change, the "knowledge explosion," poverty, illiteracy, and a host of educational and social inequities. Fred Baldwin, in a paper developed for the HEW Lifelong Learning Project, summed it up in this way:

> It is not just that the phrase provokes disagreements about details—any generalization does that—but that its implications for different users are strikingly inconsistent. It is used as a slogan by those advocating expanding institutional programs *and* by those who want to "deschool" society; by those who emphasize recurrent education to help workers adjust to their jobs *and* by those who emphasize education as a means of self-fulfillment; by those who attack over-reliance on degrees and credentials *and* by those who want to expand the system of degrees and credentials via continuing education units; by those who perceive schools as oriented too little toward the job market *and* by those who wish to maximize interaction among different age groups within the same classroom setting. To be sure, these positions are not in every case contradictory, but they pull in opposite directions.

In short, though the phrase lifelong education is more likely to make the heart leap up than adult education, it has inherent in it no particular theory of societal or individual good, and it offers no guidelines for policymakers or decisionmakers at any level. The phrase reminds us that in a changing society, to focus all educative

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efforts on youth in schools is shortsighted, and to ignore the resources of family, church, workplace, community, and mass media is wasteful. But it is left to the individual interpreters of the phrase to make the difficult choices that will turn the cliches into a plan of action.

Why Community Colleges?

Griffith mentions the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges as one of the few educational groups in Washington engaged in effective "lobbying," but points out that adult educators in the AACJC have not achieved much prominence. He quotes Hodgkinson's 1970 analysis of the orientation of community college teachers and its likely implications for the future development of community colleges:

> It has been reliably reported that 60% of the faculty members in community colleges would prefer to teach in four-year institutions. Unless the community college can develop its own curricula, its own appeal to faculty, it may find it is simply at the low end of the academic totem pole rather than being a new kind of institution serving new societal needs with new forms of organization and reward, and new definitions of status of achievement, badly needed in higher education.

Yet more recent developments have put community colleges in a good position to define, implement, and exemplify the concepts of lifelong education. As the fastest growing institutions serving adults, with the capacity to respond more quickly than traditional higher education institutions to community needs, community colleges have already proven their ability to attract nontraditional clientele and to develop nontraditional delivery systems. Indeed, a sampling of recommendations made by the HEW Lifelong Learning Project's report to Congress might lead one to believe the project had community colleges in mind, when they recommended that Congress—

Support an enlarged network of learning opportunities that are accessible on demand, of low cost to the learner, and open to persons of all social classes, occupational status, and ethnic origins;

Support efforts of local providers to cooperatively assess learner needs and make available appropriate learning opportunities;

Support projects which develop new, cost-effective approaches to the learning needs of all adults, but particularly the disadvantaged;

Support the development and evaluation of demonstration of projects which combine work and learning, especially those that aim at improving the quality of work life, including those that permit more flexible scheduling of education, work, and leisure over the course of a lifetime;

Identify or develop programs that help women enter traditionally male fields to prepare them for new career roles.

As a glance at any of its informational brochures will show, the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges is involved in funded projects in each of the above areas, creating models for community colleges. As the recent study done by the AACJC Policies for Lifelong Education Project indicates, most community colleges have collaborative relationships with a variety of other community agencies. Many community colleges have gone far beyond their genesis as transfer institutions, and truly define their mission as community-based and performance-oriented.

But if community colleges are truly to become leaders of the lifelong education movement, they must develop a lifelong education platform and develop strategies at the local, state, and federal levels to educate the public and the policymakers about the importance of

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this educational dimension. The remainder of this paper suggests some strategies to achieve these ends.

The Platform and the Strategies

Since lifelong education can mean anything you want it to mean, the question is, what do the community colleges want it to mean? Russell Garth, program officer at the Fund for Improvement of Postsecondary Education, suggested in a talk at the National University Extension Association that we think of the learning resources available in our society as a series of islands. What are needed are bridges, or policies, which enable learners to get from one island to the next. Such policies might include financial aid, admissions, scheduling, locations, evaluation, transfer or credits, and a variety of other things, but the emphasis would be on access and flexibility for the adult learner. Establishing a position of adult learner advocacy and developing a checklist of policies favorable to adult learners (an "Adult Learners' Bill of Rights") is crucial in clarifying the ambiguities of the phrase lifelong education.

Ed Cohen-Rosenthal, American Center of the Quality of Worklife, suggests the following items for a Lifelong Learning Platform:

1. Establish community learning opportunities Councils.
2. Make government employee educational benefits widely available.
3. Use educational and other coordinating agencies to provide for diversity and coordination.
4. Provide benefits for participation in learning activities.
5. Include part-time students in all student financial aid programs.
6. Provide incentive grant programs for fuller participation of low income people in lifelong learning opportunities.

7. Open up colleges and schools to those over 65 on a space available basis and provide supportive services.
8. Use the public libraries and museums to promote lifelong learning.
9. Fund equally returning drop-outs seeking high school diplomas.
10. Use the Continuing Education Unit as a basis for government funding of non-credit educational offerings.
11. Consolidate government programs related to education and training into more efficient groupings.
12. Eliminate red tape surrounding unemployment insurance and welfare recipients with assurance of full benefits for those attempting to gain new skills.
13. Prohibit discrimination on the basis of degrees instead of demonstrated competencies and job skills.
14. Support open university and external degree programs in higher education.
15. Eliminate course requirements for relicensure of professionals in place of demonstrated competencies.
16. Support cooperative education for young and old students.
17. Evaluate job related education for college credit recommendations.
18. Support business and labor programs which provide tuition assistance, released time, or paid educational leave for workers.
19. Insure accountability of programs by mandating consumer protection agencies to deal strongly with fraud.
20. Establish state and national commissions on work and education to bring business,

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labor, and education together to discuss large scale efforts at solutions.

As Rosenthal points out, there are four major ways to influence policy: legislative, administrative, judicial, or electoral. A combination of strategies might be appropriate in any given situation.

Legislative. In addition to the amount of funds available to support lifelong education, four other questions should be asked about any proposed or existing lifelong education legislation:

1. Are the guidelines of the legislation broadly conceived? (A negative example would be legislation which requires educational experiences to be directly job-related in order for the expenses to be tax deductible. Such legislation facilitates further education only for those who want to stay in the same job slot, not for those who want to prepare themselves for new fields of work.)
2. In such areas as admissions and financial aid, are there unreasonable age restrictions which deny access to education on the basis of need and merit?
3. Are there *de facto* or *de jure* inflexibilities in where and when education takes place, thereby effectively ruling out significant adult participation? (For example, lack of mandate for flexible scheduling means adults are not welcome. Sound policy means services are available to all who need them, not for daytime participants only).
4. Does the legislation promote an integrated approach to education, or does it set up another track? (For example, formation of community learning opportunities councils promote the synergetic coordination of all

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learning resources in a community and promote the mobility of individuals between various kinds of educational experiences. Divisions between formal and nonformal education, between academic and vocational tracks, or between primary, secondary, and postsecondary education, often make false distinctions on behalf of structure, not of learning.)

Legislation can be influenced by a variety of activities. Representative oversight authority allows officials to hold hearings where issues that affect lifelong education are being considered. A friendly legislator can be influenced to introduce a bill mandating greater support by public agencies for lifelong education opportunities. In the bi-annual renewal of school and higher education legislative renewals, citizens can demand that more attention be given to the elements of an integrated system of lifelong education.

Local groups under the leadership of community college representatives, can legislatively promote the development of active adult learner programs in the libraries or for greater support of the continuing and extension programs of schools and colleges in the area.

On the statewide level, lobbying efforts might urge that continuing education units, a measure of non-credit learning, be used as yardsticks for financial support of non-credit continuing education programs. State planning agencies should be directed to find ways to diversify educational offering and insure the coordination of their services. State and local governments should take the lead by providing liberal educational benefits to their employees.

Administrative. Steps to influence administrative decisions can be taken from within and from without. Most laws provide for considerable leeway in implementing a program, and administrative decisions might be more impor-

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tant than the law itself. Interested citizens can prepare position papers on how the law should be implemented, gather public support for an alternative position if administrative officials are unresponsive, approach office heads if subordinates do not follow through, and can get newspapers involved when internal bargaining does not produce results. Proponents of lifelong education should be sure to attend any public hearings on the administrative regulations which would implement the law.

Judicial. Judicial action is harder to influence, but it can be significant in codifying into law changing societal values. For example, *Griggs v. Duke Power Company* dealt with the issue of being judged on what one knows and how one performs rather than on ambiguous credentials. The Court said, in its 1971 decision:

...Congress has placed on the employer the burden of showing that any given requirement must have a manifest relationship to the employment in question. The facts of this case demonstrate the inadequacy of broad and general testing devices as well as the informity of using diplomas or degrees as fixed measures of capability.

Electoral. Candidates can be urged to take stands on such issues as support for an open university or external degree program, tax deductions for educational expenses, support for community learning opportunities councils. Lifelong education platforms, such as the one suggested above, can be prepared and the results released to local papers. Records can be kept and released of the relationship between the congressperson's actual votes to the slogans he or she espouses.

The above suggestions are general in nature, and could be used by people acting as private citizens or as institutional representatives in developing and implementing their lifelong education platforms. Some more specific suggestions

follow, which might be especially useful to community college leaders attempting to develop support for lifelong education from three groups: policymakers, education interest groups, and learners.

Policymakers. What do they need to know? What will convince them of the worth of your programs and will give them ammunition to convince others?

Convincing Policymakers

1. Identify what you want to change and how it affects people. Develop long-range goals and a plan to achieve them, so that you are not reduced to merely engaging in crisis lobbying of the moment.
2. Identify a focus upon which to converge. Present a problem filled with urgency for action. For example, one problem is the need for equity in the benefits of education; another is the significant societal trend towards industrial democracy, which has sizeable implications for education.
3. Make lifelong education concrete. Use your constituents to present the data. Present the stories of individuals, personal and anecdotal, supported with quantitative data. Let policymakers know that adult part-time learners aren't the wave of the future; they are here now. Give examples of specific programs for specific groups: programs of family learning, of community collaborations, of cost-effective delivery systems. Right now most policymakers have a fuzzy image of lifelong education; fill it in for them with specifics.
4. Go to them with specific requests, and show them what minimum effort will have maximum payoffs, including some tradeoffs and policy alternatives. Present

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a short, action-oriented list, not vague goals and rhetoric.

5. Emphasize cost-effective utilization and maximization of present resources.
6. Work through local, state, and federal associations.
7. Consider how to best marshall and mobilize the great potential of your constituent groups, your student and your community members. Build on existing local and community networks and get them to tell your story for you. A good theory of community development is closely related to successful political action for lifelong education.
8. Emphasize service to the difficult to reach and teach. A recent National Center for Educational Statistics report suggests that the degree to which an institution serves minority and older adults, plus its ability to demonstrate the extent to which it serves the *whole* community, will determine its health in the future.
9. Use annual national, state, or regional association meetings to get your political agenda straight. Also use other vehicles of communication, such as monthly legislative newsletters. It is useful to develop a method for determining association or institutional goals.
10. Analyze pieces of legislation up for renewal, such as the Higher Education Act, and determine what is in the interest of the members (In particular, this coming reauthorization of the Higher Education Act may provide the last chance to deal with such issues as the relationship between federal, state, and local roles before the absolute decline of the 18-year old

enrollment; decisions must be made before tight finances become the sole dictator of people's priorities.)

11. Don't limit yourselves to education legislation, but consider related pieces of legislation which might further lifelong education goals, such as the Comprehensive Employment Training Act or the Older Americans Act.

12. Consider working through an umbrella group, such as the Education Commission of the States, the National Governors Conference, the National Conference of State Legislatures, and plan a lifelong education conference in each state, culminating in a White House Conference.

Education interest groups. What will convince them that collaborative, rather than competitive, kinds of relationships will be of most benefit to both institutions and learners?

1. Do a joint community needs and resources assessment with other providers of adult learning opportunities in your community. Ask four kinds of questions:

   a) Who are the unserved groups with lifelong education needs in this community? (learner assessment)

   b) What lifelong education resources currently exist in our community? How might we build on or collaborate with existing resources or institutions? (community assessment)

   c) What is the unique potential of each institution? How do we wish to change or improve our image and role in the community in becoming a "lifelong education" institution? (institutional self-assessment)

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d) What institutional policies do we need to alter in order to succeed in these goals? What collaborative arrangements do we need to create with other institutions? (policies assessments)

Under the direction of G. Roger Sell, the National Center for Higher Education Management Systems staff at Boulder, Colorado, is developing a series of tools and procedures for institutions which wish to undergo the above four kinds of assessment.

2. Develop joint proposals with other agencies in your community, directed to the Department of Labor, the Administration on Aging, or the National Institute of Education. Lifelong education is a boundary-spanning concept.

3. Replicate the AACJC Policies in Lifelong Education study which examined collaborative relationships of community colleges and other community groups. Discover what you have to build on and publicize it.

Learners. How can the resources of community members be tapped? Edward Cohen-Rosenthal (undated) suggests the formation of citizen learning opportunities councils, which have a perspective of citizen consumer and of community development. Selected by the mayor, city manager, county executive, or other administrative head, these groups serve to stimulate to teach and to learn. They have six functions: articulation, planning, coordination, publicity, consumer advocacy, and information collection and dissemination. Working with the community colleges, such groups could help mobilize the community members into a new participation in lifelong education.

The above list is a mere beginning. As mentioned earlier, lifelong education is a slogan to be shaped and given meaning by the particular individuals and institutions committed to it. Community colleges are in a good position to be the centers of lifelong education in a community, and individuals and the community in general will benefit if they succeed.

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Attitudes, Attitudes: It's Time For a Change

R.D. Justice and Jacquilyn Ampersé

If there are special benefits due a class of student in America, it is the adult, part-time evening student who should receive them. This is the student who, in most cases, pays more than once for his or her education. He or she pays as a taxpayer in the community, pays into many national education endowments, and pays again through some form of fee or tuition for the privilege of continuing in education. Yet, his or her educational opportunities are severely limited and unequal to those of the traditional full-time students, who enjoy fuller capabilities of the American educational system provided by tax monies. The adult part-time students, numbering over four million, contribute heavily to this tax money.

The purpose of this paper is to show that the adult part-time and evening student—in past years a small percentage of consumers at educational institutions —is rapidly becoming a majority clientele. In fact—in the community college—the majority of students are part-time. In the United States, part-time students accounted for more than 58 per cent of the 1977 fall enrollment in two-year institutions.

While this growing student population has been a financial saving grace for a great number of institutions (and many of these have acknowledged this fact), the adult part-time and evening student is still treated as the educational stepchild in our American system.

As more adults return to universities, four-year colleges and community colleges, these institutions must make changes to provide, in the evening, on-campus services which every college student must have—such as bookstores, libraries, cafeteria facilities and access to administrators. Also, academic necessities such as counseling, tutoring, and consultation time with instructors should be available at night. In addition, evening students have the same right to social activities as traditional day students. These activities should be tailored to the interests of older, more family-oriented adults, who comprise the majority of evening students.

This paper will highlight problems in the areas of recognition, curriculum, services, legislation, and finances, and will offer recommendations to create an environment more favorable to the part-time student. The recommendations are based upon the authors' knowledge and experiences as adult part-time students and their affiliation with such organizations as the United States Association of Evening Students.

Prior to 1960, there was little concern for adult part-time students, and their numbers were so small their cries were unheard. In the early

1960's things began to change and, in 1962, the first organized group of adult evening and part-time students came into existence in the United States. It was the USAES. Their pleas were for services and curriculum. Yet, the number of students affected was insufficient to create waves in the education system. Besides, there were thousands of traditional baby-boom students filling the colleges and universities.

By 1970, the numbers of traditional students were no longer on the increase. It became obvious to some institutions that in order to exist they were going to have to recruit nontraditional students. In the period 1969-72, the number of full-time students in postsecondary education grew by 8.8 per cent, while the number of part-time students increased 24 per cent. In collegiate institutions, the part-time student increase was 3.5 times greater than in all postsecondary education in the United States.

In some regions of the country between 1969 and 1974, part-time enrollment in state universities grew by almost 50 per cent. Through 1978, the growth of part-time students exceeded that of full-time students in all regions of the country.

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According to current data furnished by the National Center for Educational Statistics, the part-time student accounted for 39.59 per cent of all students in universities, four-year institutions, and two-year institutions. For two-year institutions, the part-time student accounts for 58.66 per cent of total student enrollments. It is interesting to note that there are more part-time students in the United States than there are total students in two-year institutions.

39.59 Per Cent

The fact that 40 per cent of the total enrollment in colleges and universities in the U.S. is part-time students is obviously significant. What receives a great deal less publicity is the fact that these part-time students attend colleges and universities predominantly in the evening. As evening students they pay more for fewer services,

smaller curriculum options, and less financial assistance.

But these adult part-time evening students are painfully unaware that their presence is supplying the extra revenue that allows many institutions to keep their doors open. Nor are they aware that they exist in sufficient numbers to create change by unified effort.

This is indicated in a statement by an administrator at St. Mary's College (located outside San Francisco), as quoted in *Business Week*, February 14, 1977: "The new adult programs are helping to carry the school financially. It's very profitable."

In the same article, Temple University's financial vice president and treasurer, James D. Logan, commented on a study the university undertook to determine the use of a six-story building. Logan was quoted as saying that they considered selling or leasing the building, but after conducting the study, concluded that adult education returned the greatest amount of net revenue.

If adult students were aware of the financial importance they represent on these campuses, and if they were aware of their tremendous numbers, they could easily influence the institutions to provide educational services that fit their needs and schedules.

Rising Costs

There is much publicity concerning the current rise in the cost of education, especially at the postsecondary level. Nowhere is this rising cost more acutely felt than with the adult part-time evening student. It is not uncommon to meet adult college students who are also parents of one or more children enrolled at traditonal colleges. Traditional students find many scholarship opportunities available as well as federal and local financial assistance programs. Part-time evening students are informed that, because of their part-time status, they do not qualify for most forms of financial assistance. The institution is happy to have them (as students helping to

carry the financial burdens) but they are not offered financial assistance from the institution.

A major complaint from evening students at a southern member college of USAES was that, "Scholarships are not readily available to evening students." Another problem is that administrative offices are not open during the evenings; so, had scholarships been available, there would be no one to administer them.

While we refer to most on-campus services problems as discriminating between day and evening students, the problem of financial inequities is generally a discrimination between full- and part-time students. Until recently, anything less than full-time enrollment precluded the possibility of federal grants and loans. Because of recent legislation, this opportunity has been extended to the half-time student. This still leaves a large number of students unable to qualify for federal grants and aids. In many community colleges, the majority of the part-time students are unqualified for financial aid. Thus, the very people who need financial aid the most are the ones who are left out.

In accordance with the cost of their education, federal financial aid must be available to all students regardless of whether they attend day or evening, full-time or part-time. At present, of the 1.9 million recipients of financial aid, only 8.4 per cent are part-time students.

President Carter, among many, is against the Packwood-Moynihan legislation. He prefers an extension and expansion of the basic education grants to include more middle income families. Once again, this will help adults who have children in college, but it will do nothing for adults attending college part-time. They are not included in President Carter's recommendation nor the College Opportunity Act of 1978. Again, the inequities.

Adults are asked to pay taxes, support school systems, and are welcomed into adult programs

that offer financial preservation for many institutions; however they are denied financial assistance equal to traditional students. They are expected to be grateful for being allowed to return to college at all, and they are advised they shouldn't demand such high priorities as equal access to full educational opportunities.

Proposition 13

Legislation receiving notoriety of late is Proposition 13 in the state of California. It has had some effect on the community college systems which are supported by property taxes in California. What has happened? At Los Angeles Trade Tech, over 200 evening classes have been canceled, and this is all too typical. The attitude is, "If anything goes, make it the evening program." Yet, this is the program that, in so many instances, is providing financial security for the institution.

Attitudes, attitudes—these must be changed The attitude of the administrator who demeans the evening and part-time student as a second-class citizen, the attitude of the legislator who feels the adult evening and part-time student has no needs, the attitude of instructors who feel evening classes are ones in which they are not required to give their full effort, the attitude of employers who feel an evening diploma is inferior to traditional diplomas, and the attitude of the evening student who feels he or she is not really a student but is only taking a couple of classes and feels lucky to have those.

Student services are the most obvious institutional deficiencies that confront adult part-time evening students. Is it possible for anyone to comprehend as a reality attending a college or university in which the student has little or no access to a library? This does happen. How? Simple. It isn't open during hours when the average part-time evening student can use its services. The most common case is that the library is not open on weekends and the evening

student has classes or other obligations four nights of the week.

In some cases, the library closes at 6 p.m. What time is left for a student to use a library? Why is the library not open? It costs money to operate a library and that money must be spent during the daytime. It is inconceivable to most administrators to open a library from noon to nine (if it can only be open during the week), rather than from eight to five; and it is totally impossible to offer library services for fewer hours in the morning, thereby having funds available to open the library a few weekend hours.

Essential Services Lacking

Lack of food services is also a problem for the evening student. A plethora of research and conclusions show that elementary students from low-income areas find it difficult to excel as students without proper nutrition. This holds true for the student who has worked eight or more hours in a full-time job, driven directly to campus for a 5:45 p.m. class. The person could use some nourishment either prior to class or during the break between that class and the next. A food service on campus could be self-supportive, since the cafeteria is already there—and many people need the jobs. The two could be put together so that the evening student could at least have a snack.

Lack of counseling on campus is a major career problem for evening students. Again, institutions realize the value of monies generated by evening students, but they do not want to supply the basic needs. Their argument is that the evening student is more mature and goal oriented, and therefore has little need for frills such as counseling.

Adults do need counseling, as revealed in the following cases:

> Barbara was entering the University of Akron following a divorce. She is an intelligent woman but was overwhelmed by crowds and

long lines at registration. She wanted to enter the Business Administration bachelor's program but was confused as to specific courses needed for the program. Fortunately for Barbara, the Evening College at the University, under the exceptional leadership of Dr. Caesar Carrino, provided counseling and advisement for its evening students. After some advisement, following frustration and tears, Barbara selected a course of study and two classes with which to begin. Subsequent advisement developed her schedule for the remainder of the year utilizing the less hectic mail registration procedure.

Lillie S. is a forty-two-year-old black mother of four. She originally entered college in 1954 but was dismissed because of poor academic performance. She re-entered 20 years later, having matured, and become goal oriented. She was desirous of achievement. With careful academic advisement and her own dedication, Lillie was soon earning A and B grades. She will graduate in June, 1979. She has done this while working full-time, caring for her family, and studying one or two courses per quarter as an evening student. Because of her success, she plans to pursue a bachelor's degree.

Jan S., 35 years old, a wife and mother of three, acquired 25 credit hours 15 years ago. Her educational plans changed, and she wished to change majors and begin anew. Jan was apprehensive about her ability to fit in with the typical college student. Her counselor assured her that evening college was concerned about her and that she would be attending with other men and women in similar circumstances. The counselor advised her how to utilize her past credits, even though she had changed majors.

One of the most desolate moments for many students is when they realize they cannot obtain a degree while attending at night. Many institutions, especially in the eastern United States and some California schools, offer several degree programs in the evening; however, rarely are the evening offerings more than 60 per cent of the day offerings. In some institutions they are less than 10 per cent of the day offerings, and in far too many universities, there are no evening degrees offered.

Joy M. graduated from Mesa Community College in Arizona with an associate's degree. She intended to earn a bachelor's degree at Arizona State University (ASU). She was extremely disappointed when she discovered there was no avenue through which she could receive a bachelor's degree while attending evenings.

Loraine K., an education major, had to quit her job, thereby losing seniority, in order to fulfull the student teaching requirements for her degree. She completed the requirements, received her degree; but since teaching jobs were scarce, she had to seek other employment, once again starting at the bottom.

Marie K. earned an executive secretarial degree and later her bachelor's degree in Elementary Education and an associate degree in Business Administration by attending evening classes. As teaching positions were (and are) scarce, she inquired about qualifications to teach Secondary Business Education. She was told, in writing, by an accredited college, she only needed six credits (two subjects) to be certified in Secondary Business Education. She completed the first three credits. Although she was doing individualized study for the second course (it was offered only in the daytime), she was scheduled to sit in on

some classes during the day which meant time off from her job (this was class time plus traveling time for a course not related to her job). This was not too feasible at work. Due to demands of work load, work situations and illness, she withdrew from the course.

For several semesters, Marie faithfully contacted the school asking if that course was to be offered. Either it was not to be offered or it was not to be offered during the evening hours. Wishing to complete these last three credits, she again inquired at the school's certification department and was told she needed additional credits. She also was told there was a new department chairman and he definitely would require the additional credits in order for her to be certified. The letter about the original six credits did not seem to exist. About 15 additional credits were needed and there was no guarantee that classes would be taught in the evening. When Marie K. mentioned that she was an evening student, that she worked during the day, she was told, "It isn't our fault that you are working during the day." Faced with this type of educational attitude, Marie K. did not pursue the subject any further.

Still Other Problems

There are still other problem areas. In some cases, a student cannot pick up an application for admission without going to the campus during the daytime. Registration for classes, day or evening, is held solely during the daytime. There are no administrators on campus after 5 p.m. Bookstores are not open in the evening. Evening faculty, unless they also are full-time faculty, have no office space or area in which they can confer with students. Student governments meet only during the day with little possibility of evening student representation. Student offices are not available for evening student governments. Activity cards are not available for eve-

ning students but discounts are available to day students.

Once again, the term *attitude* applies. Some institutions look upon their part-time students as inferior, despite examples of achievement. Statistics from the nursing program of the State University of New York at Farmingdale show 63 per cent of the full-time students passing the state boards while 83 per cent of the part-time students were passing the same board exam. This type of attitude tends to permeate the community and the nation. For example, Mary G. was recently interviewed for a management position at her place of employment. During the interview, one of the interviewers said he noticed she got her bachelor's degree in the evening and asked if it was a "good degree." Evening students, administrators and faculty must work to change this kind of image.

Can there be any doubt that adult part-time evening students face tremendous obstacles in their quests for an education? That answer is simple. One posing more difficulty is the answer to the question, *What is to be done?* Some of the problems can only be solved by individual effort. More frequently, they are solved by the efforts of many who have joined an association. And, in some cases, proper prior policy would have prevented them from becoming problems at all.

One student, Guy Jellen, saw problems on his local campus. He saw inequities facing the evening student. He spent a year trying to correct these problems and accomplished a great deal by getting the attention of the day student government, the administration on campus, and the evening student committee. The problem was defined. What was the solution? He had been in touch with other evening students who faced similar problems and who had joined together under the banner of USAES. He called on them for help. Through the hard work of Jellen and other interested evening students, a separate

evening division student government was formed and has since provided more programs for the evening division and has helped the administration become aware of the evening students' problems.

Students at Norfolk State College can be grateful to evening students, past and present, many of whom were members of USAES. At one time, students at Norfolk State College could complete only through their junior year at night. In order to receive their degree, it was necessary to become a day student. Today, there are degrees available at Norfolk State for those who attend all classes at night.

Part of the Constituency

Individual efforts and the efforts of organizations such as USAES are commendable, but it will take more than this to ensure equality of education for all students. Legislators must become aware that adult part-time evening students are part of the constituency from which they are elected. They must realize that when they refer to the expense of education programs and say that the taxpayer's dollar will only stretch so far, the adult part-time evening student is well aware of the problems.

More important, legislators must learn that adult part-time students want to see federal legislation that is beneficial to them. Even though there is limited tax money available, adult education must be placed higher on the priority list. Capitol Hill has a propensity for making stipulations when dispensing federal funds. Congress has made mandatory requirements concerning handicapped facilities. Certain criteria must be met for an institution to qualify for the GI Bill. Perhaps it is time that one of the strings attached to federal money be that programs and course availability be provided for all students, day or evening.

College administrators, governing boards, and boards of regents must join 20th century education. If they expect their institutions to keep their

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doors open and jobs intact, they must provide education when consumers are able to purchase it. They must recognize that the old axiom, "You don't get something for nothing," is true. If they want the adult part-time students' monies, then they must offer full accessibility, full curriculum, and full services.

Education also needs to assess more accurately the needs of business. Adult students return to education primarily to advance their earning power in the job market. For institutions to answer these needs, they must be aware of what the job market is buying. They must be able to advise students on how they can best take advantage of this market.

Lifelong education is a necessity. It is also a reality. If public education is not willing or able to provide it, then private educational systems will be the primary institutions of the future.

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Legal Policies on Lifelong Learning: An Overview of the States

S.V. Martorana and Wayne D. Smutz

This paper deals with a special aspect of the general setting for lifelong learning, namely, the official policy frameworks of the several states which bear on the concept and its implementation. Although the literature in the field concerning new developments affecting lifelong learning is growing rapidly, relatively little insight is available now from published writings about state constitutional provisions, state laws, administrative rules and regulations, general rulings, and court decisions which bear on lifelong learning. The generalization holds true despite new research in the field. While some of these have produced some insightful first looks at

state posture concerning lifelong learning[1], there are no comprehensive or analytical surveys or studies of the existing official or legal bases for lifelong learning in the several states.

A number of questions need to be answered. To what extent are the executive and legislative branches of state governments supporting the concept of lifelong learning? Are any new types of lifelong learning programs being developed as a result of legislative or administrative action? Are there state policies which are detrimental to the growth of the concept?

Querying the People Who Know

To obtain information on state policies related to lifelong learning, a survey letter was mailed to public school and postsecondary representatives in all 50 states. Specifically, all members of the National Council of Chief State School Officials, all executive directors of the State Postsecondary Education "1202" Commissions, all executive officers of state boards responsible for higher education, and all members of the National Council of State Directors of Community and Junior Colleges were contacted. The survey requested respondents to supply answers to four sets of open-ended questions defining lifelong learning in a broad and inclusive sense: (1) What constitutional provisions and legislative statutes bear positively or negatively on the concept of growth in practice of lifelong learning? (2) What state administrative policies (rules and regulations) bear positively or negatively on the concept? (3) What court cases bear positively or negatively on the concept? (4) What attorney general rulings bear positively or negatively on the concept?

Officials (public school or postsecondary) from 42 different states responded to the survey, assuring a base of information broad enough to portray the general nationwide condition. Altogether, 28 state public education officials and 28 postsecondary or higher education officials responded to the inquiry.

Respondents for the most part provided narrative responses to the four sets of questions as well as supporting documents (copies of laws, state plans, and administrative policy statements). In order to organize the information into a manageable form, the responses for each set of questions were divided into those that were positive and those that were negative. Each positive and negative response for each of the four sets of questions was then identified with one of nine substantive categories: Finance, Administration, Facilities, Personnel, Students, Programs, Philosophical Encouragement, State Technical Assistance, and None. This type of identification and categorization permitted more detailed examination of the response.

The substantive categories noted above are essentially self explanatory. However, a brief notation of the rationale for each category may be useful at this point. *Finance:* policies related to the funding of lifelong learning types of programs including financial regulations. *Administration:* policies related to the governance and general administration of lifelong learning programs. *Facilities:* policies that affect the use of educational facilities and equipment for lifelong learning programs. *Personnel:* policies and regulations concerning the individuals involved in the delivery of lifelong learning programs. *Students:* policies that identify specific groups for lifelong learning programs as well as the provision of financial aid for those students. *Programs:* policies that authorize lifelong learning types of programs. *Philosophical Encouragement:* pronouncements that provide state-level support for the concept but do not go beyond that. *State Technical Assistance:* policies where state-level bodies are authorized to provide some type of special assistance to districts or institutions to help them develop lifelong learning programs. *None:* responses that indicate that no relevant policies exist.

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There are at least three ways to analyze the information relating to each set of questions. One way is to look at the states' general response to lifelong learning by combining public school and postsecondary responses. A second is to review the different approaches to the concept according to level (public school and postsecondary). Finally, it is possible to analyze the positive and negative policies separately. Each method was utilized and is reflected in what follows in order to provide as comprehensive a view of the state policy base as possible.

The remainder of this paper provides an overview of the public policy base for lifelong learning in the states as reported by the individual state respondents. State constitutional and statutory provisions will be discussed first, then state level administrative policies, and finally court cases and attorney general rulings. Some conclusions, generalizations and implications for the field conclude the presentation.

Constitutions and Statutes

The concept of lifelong learning defined in the very general sense established in the inquiry appears to have a substantial constitutional and/or statutory base throughout the nation. This is reflected in the fact that only six of the 42 responding states reported that there were no constitutional or statutory provisions related to the concept at either the public school or postsecondary levels. This certainly indicates that states are addressing lifelong learning as an issue in their educational enterprises. However, this statement does warrant a word of caution that will be more fully developed below; that is that the constitutional and statutory base is misleading to a certain degree. A substantial number of the statutory provisions are related to programs that have had a traditional and long-standing place in the state educational framework. For example, many of the programs identified in the provisions such as adult education, continuing education,

and extension services as well as others are ones that have existed for a considerable amount of time.

An analysis of the substantive categorization of the constitutional and statutory provisions indicates that they fall primarily into three categories: Programs (30 states), Finance (29 states), and Students (26 states). It is also noteworthy that only ten states reported constitutional or statutory provisions providing philosophical support for the concept of lifelong learning. Importantly, both positive and negative statutory provisions were reported and the distribution of the provisions among the major categories of Programs, Finance, and Students is not evenly divided between the public school and postsecondary levels. Both of these points are now addressed.

Positive Constitutional and Statutory Provisions

There can be no question on the basis of this study that most reporting states have positive statutory provisions related to lifelong learning. The conclusion is clear upon analysis of the combined public school and postsecondary responses that show only five of the 42 reporting states indicated no positive statutory provisions. There is, however, a slight difference in the number of states reporting no positive provisions when responses from the public school officials and postsecondary officials are compared. Only three public school respondents reported no positive provisions while eight postsecondary respondents did so. The placement of the positive provisions into categories indicates that the dispersion of positive provisions among categories basically reflects the same pattern as is evidenced for all provisions combined. Thus, the three areas receiving the most attention were Programs (30 states), Finance (26 states), and Students (23 states), while all ten of the states reporting philosophical encouragement indicated that this action was oriented positively to lifelong learning.

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Programs. Although Programs receive the most positive attention in the statutes, the look at the states shows that the number of states giving positive statutory attention through action on programs differs between the public school and postsecondary levels. Twenty-three of the 28 public school respondents reported positive program attention while only 15 of the postsecondary respondents did so. In addition, as would be expected, the particular program thrusts noted in the provisions are not the same at the two levels.

A broad range of programs which fall into the general lifelong learning rubric was reported at the public school level. Included were such programs as adult education, vocational education, adult basic education, evening classes, educational TV, community education, and career education, as well as others. Those receiving the most attention were adult education (17 states), community schools (14 states), evening schools (11 states), and vocational education (nine states). Statutory provisions for these programs are usually quite similar from state to state, but three states have positive program provisions that are quite interesting. One is in Wyoming where the Cooperative Educational Services Act provides for public schools and community colleges to join together to provide necessary educational services for all age groups. The other examples come from Pennsylvania and New York where statutory provisions make it possible for groups of 12 to 20 adults to request school boards to provide them with educational instruction in a field of their choice. The extent to which adults in Pennsylvania and New York are aware and make use of these provisions, however, is unknown.

Fifteen of the 28 postsecondary respondents indicated that there were positive programatic statutory provisions. The range of programs was also quite substantial. Programs noted included authorization for continuing education, extension

services, basic community college legislation, credit by examination or for life experience, and professional relicensure programs, as well as others. *Of particular interest to this assembly is the fact that the program most often noted by postsecondary respondents, however, was the emphasis placed on lifelong learning in community college legislation (ten states).* Even though most of the programs identified above have been in existence for some time, there are some signs of relatively recent developments. Three states indicated that external degree programs had either been authorized or were being seriously considered while three other states reported that provisions to establish educational opportunity and educational centers for adults were either in existence or on the drawing boards.

The upshot of this examination of policy relating to programs is that, while a substantial number of states have positive policies shown in statutory provisions for lifelong learning programs, if that term is defined in a broad sense, the policies rest on a base essentially rooted in programs that have been in existence for some time, such as adult education and continuing education. The only major new statutory developments are those relating to community schools at the public school level and external degree and adult opportunity centers at the postsecondary level. Also noteworthy is the fact that the postsecondary level seems to have a greater variety of new programs than does the public school level. Both of these facts suggest that lifelong learning as a new and different educational concept from the traditional notions of adult and continuing education is only an emerging concept, at least in terms of positive constitutional and statutory provisions for programs.

Finance. Finance is the second major area that receives positive attention in state constitutional and statutory provisions. The combined

public school and postsecondary responses indicate that 29 of the 42 responding states reported some type of financial support for lifelong learning. At the public school level, positive financial provisions provide for partial or full funding for such programs as adult education, community schools, vocational education and evening classes, among others. One particularly noteworthy program is in Alaska where the Community School Grant Fund provides grants for innovative community school programs. At the postsecondary level, partial or full funding is provided in the constitutional and statutory provisions for such programs as continuing education, extension services, and community colleges.

Although both public school and postsecondary lifelong learning programs do receive state funding, the data gathered do point out one significant distinction. More states provide some type of fiscal support for lifelong learning programs at the public school level than do so for postsecondary programs. Nineteen of the 28 responding public school officials reported some type of funding for lifelong learning programs, whereas only seven of the postsecondary respondents indicated the presence of state funding in constitutional and statutory provisions. This discrepancy may, of course, be accounted for by the longer and closer association of the public schools with state governments and state direction whereas postsecondary institutions as a rule have been more autonomous. Whatever the reasons for the difference in practice, the fact remains that postsecondary education efforts to implement lifelong learning are operating under a handicap relative to the public school systems.

Students. The student category is the third major substantive category receiving significant positive attention in constitutional and statutory provisions. Combined responses from the public school and postsecondary respondents indicate

that 23 of the 42 responding states have legal provisions authorizing programs for specific groups of people, although the structuring of programs for specific groups occurs more often at postsecondary level (16 states) than at the public school level (nine states). Examples of such provisions at the public school level include ones that place no age restriction on public school attendance and others that establish programs for the handicapped. One particularly interesting provision is a Hawaii statute that permits unemployed people to attend adult education classes without charge if it is determined that such courses may help them to become employable. Positive state statutory provisions at the postsecondary level include provisions that permit senior citizens to attend postsecondary institutions without charge (eight states) and financial aid programs for part-time students (three states).

Negative Constitutional and Statutory Provisions

A substantial number of the states reported that constitutional and/or statutory provisions that affect lifelong learning negatively do exist. Before discussing those negative provisions, however, it is important to note that a substantial number of states reported *no* negative provisions to be present at all. Specifically, when public school and postsecondary responses are combined, 21 of the 42 responding states reported that no negative provisions exist. When the public school and postsecondary responses were separated, it was seen that 14 of the 28 public school respondents and 17 of the postsecondary respondents reported no negative provisions.

Nevertheless, as noted above, there were a substantial number of states that did report negative provisions. Primarily, these fell into two substantive categories—finance (20 states) and students (11 states). When the public school and postsecondary responses are separated, negative financial provisions are found at both levels. In most cases, the effective policies in this category

provide for reduced or no funding for certain types of lifelong learning programs.

At the public school level, 14 states reported negative provisions. Primarily, these took the form of requiring tuition for adult education and/or elementary and secondary completion courses, prohibiting the use of tax monies or ordinary school funds for lifelong learning programs, and requiring the imposition of additional taxes if a district wanted to financially support lifelong learning programs. Similar types of financial restrictions are evident at the postsecondary level. A number of states report that evening, continuing education, and degree extension courses are funded at substantially lower rates than on-campus, regular courses which results in a higher fee charged to part-time students. In other cases, non-credit or what some legislatures consider frill courses are prohibited from receiving state funds and thus must be totally self supporting.

Several examples illustrate legislatures' refusals to provide state funds for lifelong learning types of programs. In Washington, the legislature passed a Community Schools Act in 1973 but has refused to fund it since that time. Connecticut, Mississippi and North Carolina postsecondary respondents reported that while degree extension and continuing education credit courses receive some state funding, the rates are subtantially below that provided for regular courses, resulting in higher tuition to the participating students. In Colorado, the legislature has refused to fund any lifelong learning types of programs since 1972. Finally, it is important to note that recent enactment of Proposition 13 in California, an amendment to the constitution, may ultimately affect the funding of lifelong learning activities in a negative way. Some evidence of this is at hand, although steps are being taken to try to limit deleterious effects.

Eleven states also reported negative constitu-

tional and statutory provisions affecting students, with most of them noting negative provisions at the public school level. Specifically, provisions such as those restricting free attendance at public schools to people of specified age, for example, five to 21, were viewed as negative. At the postsecondary level, Missouri and Vermont noted the restriction of financial aid to full-time students as a negative statutory provision.

State Administrative Policies

Within the broader constitutional and statutory constructs of public policy in a state, state-level administrative policies can also affect the status of lifelong learning. For that reason, we sought also to determine to what extent and in what ways state administrative policies are dealing with the concept. It was discovered that an overwhelming number of states do have some form of administrative policies that bear on the subject. Combined public school and postsecondary responses indicate that only five of the 42 reporting states have *no* state policies dealing with lifelong learning issues. Moreover, state level administrative policies at the public school and postsecondary levels occur at about the same rates; that is, separating the public school and postsecondary responses, only three of the 28 public school respondents reported no administrative policies and only four of the postsecondary respondents reported no administrative policies.

A further indication of the extent of state level administrative policies is obtained by reviewing the main substantive categories in which the states' responses fall. Combined responses from both levels indicate that Programs (26 states), Administration (24 states), Philosophical Encouragement (23 states), and Finance (18 states) are the categories receiving the most attention when administrative policies are formulated. Separated responses by level, the main categories at the postsecondary level are Programs (20 states), Administration (15 states), Finance (12

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states), and Philosophical Encouragement (11 states) while the main categories at the public school level are Philosophical Encouragement (13 states), Administration (12 states), Programs (11 states) and Finance (eight states).

The state-level administrative coverage, then, obviously provides a broad overview of state level administrative policies affecting the concept of lifelong learning. To understand better what is actually happening, however, it is necessary to analyze the existing policies in terms of their positive or negative implications and in terms of the level at which they are directed.

Positive Administrative Policies

The most important point concerning positive state administrative policies is that such supportive policies exist almost everywhere. Only five of the reporting states indicated that there were no positive policies at either the public school or postsecondary school levels. The distribution of these positive policies among the substantive categories used in this inquiry shows a pattern quite similar to that for all types of administrative policies generally, with the categories of Programs, Administration, Philosophical Encouragement, and Finance receiving the most attention. Although the amount of attention given to each of these categories is slightly different at the public school and postsecondary levels, in general the same four categories receive most attention.

Programs. Positive state administrative policies affecting programs were noted by 19 postsecondary respondents and 11 public school respondents. At the public school level, positive administrative policies affecting programs generally refer to the existence of administrative regulations concerning a wide range of programs including adult basic education, vocational education, adult education, career education and others. A similar statement can be made concerning the postsecondary level. Here, in most cases,

positive administrative policies refer to the existence of supporting administrative regulations concerning such programs as community service, continuing education, degree extension, non-credit courses and educational television as well as others. At both levels, however, no one particular program was identified by a large number of states as receiving positive state-level administrative attention.

Philosophical Encouragement. A second category in which a substantial number of states' positive administrative policies fell was that of philosophical encouragement. Specifically, this category refers to the existence of positive state-level administrative policies that promote and encourage the growth of lifelong learning types of activities as a lifelong learning proposition in the educational enterprise. Thirteen of the public school respondents reported the existence of such policies. It is important to note here that 23 states reported the existence of positive state-level administrative policies that provide philosophical encouragement for lifelong learning while only ten states reported such encouragement through constitutional or statutory provisions. Although this is not necessarily surprising, it can be interpreted to mean that state administrators are taking the lead in encouraging the growth of the concept more often than are elected officials—a finding complementary to the leadership roles undertaken by the educators concerned.

The type of philosophical encouragement, of course, is different at the public school and postsecondary levels. Although several different types of programs were noted at the public school level, the one receiving the most attention was philosophical encouragement for community education. Five states reported that position papers or some other type of pronouncement had been adopted that specifically related to lifelong

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learning. Particularly interesting examples of philosophical support at the public school level come from New Hampshire where a position paper specifically endorsing the lifelong learning concept has been adopted, and from New York where the Board of Regents' 1974 policy statement lists lifelong learning as one of the ten major goals of the elementary and secondary schools. Philosophical encouragement at the postsecondary level most often takes the form of a call for institutions to establish a more comprehensive set of off-campus learning experiences. Specific examples of this were provided by Arkansas where the master plan for community colleges calls for more off-campus offerings, by New Jersey where one of the task forces working on a new master plan for higher education was directed to deal specifically with extending higher education to new groups, by North Carolina where the most recent long range plan of the University of North Carolina made an explicit commitment to lifelong learning, and by South Carolina where the Commission on Higher Education's 1972 planning document called for the expansion of lifelong learning opportunities.

Administration. Positive state-level policies that deal with the general administration of lifelong learning is a third substantive area receiving considerable attention. For public schools, the administrative policies generally address the administration of specific programs. For postsecondary education, policies in this category are generally of an administrative nature. However, there are some that focus on which of the agencies or bodies are to control off-campus learning. For example, five states noted that policies provide that individual institutions will control their own off-campus learning programs while five states reported that a state board is responsible for coordinating, reviewing, or approving off-campus courses at the postsecondary level

throughout part of the postsecondary systems and sometimes throughout all of it.

Finance. Finance is the fourth major substantive area receiving positive administrative attention; eight public school respondents and ten postsecondary respondents noted such policies. At the public school level, these policies usually refer to the financial regulations for lifelong learning types of programs. One particularly interesting example comes from Florida, where an instructional services fund is utilized to provide funds for programs that deal with specific community problems. Some interesting examples of positive financial state-level policies at the postsecondary level were also provided. In Colorado, all lifelong learning activities must be self supporting. However, a funding mechanism exists that transfers funds for subsidy purposes from those areas that can easily be self supporting to those areas that cannot be due to isolation and/or low population density. Kansas has recently adopted a new plan whereby general fund support is provided for every credit hour taught by a regular faculty member regardless of whether it is on or off campus. Finally, in Pennsylvania, a relatively new financial plan provides for state reimbursement of costs for the awarding of credit by examination or credit for life experiences at a rate of one-fourth the regular rate of state reimbursement for credit hours.

Negative Policies

Responses from the reporting states indicate that state-level policies are not very prevalent. In fact, 36 of the 42 states reported that no negative state level policies existed. In addition, it should be noted that all of the negative state-level administrative policies were reported by postsecondary respondents. Importantly, almost all of the postsecondary negative responses fell in the substantive category of *Finance*. Primarily, these negative policies have to do with no or reduced funding for certain types of lifelong

learning activities. Illustrative examples are that two states reported state-level administrative policies that prohibit the use of state funds for off-campus learning, two states reported policies that provide reduced funds for off-campus learning, and two states reported that some types of community service programs are required to be self supporting. Thus, while negative policies are not evident in substantial numbers, it is nevertheless clear that some types of financial policies are restricting the potential expansion of lifelong learning opportunities in some states as a result of state-level administrative decisions.

Judicial Decisions

To be complete, a look at the legal bases of public policy for lifelong learning needs to consider the judiciary. This inquiry, therefore, sought information about court cases or attorney general rulings to determine whether they in any way were affecting the potential growth of this concept. The conclusion reached is that on the basis of the 42 reporting states, judicial decisions are having only slight impact on lifelong learning. Moreover, the involvement is seen in only a few states and all but one of the court cases and attorney general rulings reported affect the public school level and not postsecondary educational programs or institutions.

According to sources of information for this paper, there have been hardly any court cases that affect lifelong learning in any way. In fact, only one state reported the existence of relevant court cases and the cases in question can generally be construed as having a positive effect on the concept. The one state reporting court cases was Idaho and the respondent noted that, while the state constitution prescribes lower and upper age limits for public school attendance, a number of court cases have held that these limits do not prohibit the legislature from going beyond the constitutional provisions to provide a guarantee of free public education to individuals who do not fall within the age limitations specified.

Attorney general rulings affecting lifelong learning are more prevalent but only slightly so. Seven states reported the existence of attorney general rulings. In general, existing attorney general rulings more often are viewed as having a negative rather than a positive impact. All but one reported was concerned with lifelong learning at the public school level.

Three states reported the existence of positive attorney general rulings, and all of these also were at the public school level. Several examples can be provided. In Ohio, a ruling held that tuition must be charged for adult education classes but that a board of education may set the tuition at zero dollars. In Kentucky, the attorney general has ruled that vocational education must be available to all citizens without tuition, regardless of age and regardless of whether the individual attends a private, public, or no school. And in South Carolina, a ruling held that a local school board may waive the age restrictions to allow a person under five or over 21 to attend public schools.

More states reported negative attorney general rulings than positive ones. At the public school level, five states reported negative rulings. Those rulings dealt with such issues as a school district and/or the state need not be responsible for the cost of educating individuals over age 21 at the public school level (two states), schools must charge community groups a rental fee to use school facilities (one state), and the admission of postgraduate students to public schools is subject to the discretionary authority of the local board. The only judicial decision affecting lifelong learning at the postsecondary level was a negative attorney general ruling reported by Colorado. That ruling held that all persons, including senior citizens, must pay regular tuition in order to receive formal instruction at postsecondary institutions.

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Conclusions and Implications

Strengths. Community colleges, indeed all educational interests in lifelong learning, can take heart that the concept has a substantial, positive policy base in most states. This is reflected by several indices. First, almost all responding states reported the existence of positive constitutional and/or statutory provisions that provide for lifelong learning types of activities at the public school or postsecondary levels. Second, almost all states reported the existence of state-level administrative policies that are positively related to the concept of lifelong learning at both levels. Third, 21 of the 42 responding states reported no negative state level administrative policies. Fourth, the evidence suggests that encouragement for the growth of lifelong learning is increasing and that this encouragement is coming from state-level administrative bodies although not so much from state statutory provisions. Fifth, community colleges are viewed by many postsecondary respondents as well as a number of public school officials as having a major role to play in the realization of this concept in practice.

A number of the respondents noted that the legal authorization for community colleges in many instances specifically directs community colleges to become actively involved in activities that are clearly related to lifelong learning. One particularly interesting example of the expectation for the community colleges comes from Oregon where community colleges receive state reimbursement for continuing education courses whereas four-year institutions do not.

Weaknesses. But the picture of public policies derived from legal sources cannot be painted only in glowing and favorable tones. Although it is clear that the state-policy base for lifelong learning has a number of strengths, it is also apparent that it has a number of weaknesses. Three seem to be particularly noteworthy. First,

although most states report the existence of positive statutory provisions and administrative policies related to lifelong learning, by far the majority of these provisions and policies deal with programs and issues which have been in existence for a number of years. Examples are provisions and policies relating to such programs as adult education and continuing education. Substantially less evident are provisions and policies that deal with the new expansive orientation of the lifelong learning concept. It is true, of course, that there is some evidence of the concept's expansiveness—such as the Community School Acts reported by several states and the external degree and adult education opportunity centers reported by others. In general, however, the existence of policies concerned with these new types of programs are conspicuous by their absence. Certainly this is not to suggest that the policies concerning older programs are unimportant. Instead, it means that much work must be done at the state level before the new expansive meaning of lifelong learning becomes accepted as an integral part of the state educational policy framework.

A second major weakness is the relative lack of visibility of the specific lifelong learning concept as well as the lack of philosophical encouragement for it in state statutes. Only in a relatively few cases was the concept mentioned specifically. It is true that the concept appears in state level administrative policies more often, but its absence in the statutes seems to indicate a relative lack of sensitivity to this new concept by state legislatures.

The final major weakness in the state policy base for lifelong learning concerns the financing of these types of programs. State responses with regard to negative provisions and policies affecting the concept clearly indicate that *finance is the major problem area*. Until the public policy base in this respect is clarified and strength-

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ened, a drive to implement lifelong learning will be hard to sustain. At the public school level, policies requiring tuition and fees for various adult programs, refusal to allow ordinary school funds or tax monies to be used for lifelong learning programs, and the limited or no funding for community school programs are all viewed as significant problems by many of the respondents. The financial problem seems to be even more acute at the postsecondary level. Provisions and policies that result in higher instructional costs to continuing and extension students, that prohibit financial aid to part-timers, and that permit only reduced or no funding for certain types of programs are clearly viewed as having a negative impact on the growth of lifelong learning. The haunting spectre that "Proposition 13"-like provisions and policies might possibly sweep from state to state makes this concern even more acute. Although it is too early to predict the ultimate effect of Proposition 13 on the nation as a whole, there are at least some state respondents who believe that if state and local funds for education are reduced, lifelong learning activities and programs will be some of the first to be negatively affected.

At this point, notice should be given to the important role that can be played *potentially* by the federal government. The so-called Mondale Amendment to the Higher Education Amendments of 1976 would appear to give all states high example and encouragement to act to strengthen programs toward lifelong learning.[2] The fact that federal funds authorized to support the policy have been very slow in being appropriated, however, belies that possible constructive effect.

It may be reading between the lines somewhat, but another portent emerging from this inquiry is the possible open competition between interested sections in the educational enterprises to gain pre-eminence in the field. At the present time,

there appears to be little conflict between the public school and postsecondary levels over which will provide what types of lifelong learning programs. There was no indication in the data reported that conflicts do exist in any of the states and in fact there is evidence of cooperation between the two levels. A question that still needs to be answered, however, is what role each level will play in the delivery of lifelong learning programs in the future. It is a question calling for prompt and serious attention not only of state-level planners but of leadership at institutional and local levels as well.

Public schools do have a few advantages over postseconday institutions. One is that their coverage of territory is more comprehensive. They exist in every part of the nation and are accessible to all citizens. A second is that their lifelong learning programs are more often positively recognized in state provisions than are postsecondary programs. And third is that more states have statutes that provide for some type of funding for relevant programs at the public school level than at the postsecondary level. These factors do not mean that the public schools have taken the lead with respect to the lifelong learning concept, however. In fact, the evidence suggests that the public schools have been less innovative in developing new programs than have the postsecondary institutions—at least as reflected in state policies. There seem to be a couple of reasons for this. One is that public schools are more strongly tied to serving a specific age group—the school age population. A second is that the postsecondary institutions in general seem to have a greater amount of autonomy to move into new areas than do public schools due to the schools' more restrictive association with state-level bodies.

At this point, then, it is apparent that the states have done little to designate whether the public schools or postsecondary institutions will be re-

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sponsible for lifelong learning. The mention of community colleges, however, by several respondents as particularly suited for this purpose seems to indicate that they will have a major role to play. Whether there will be conflict, then, is being left to the representatives of the two levels of education. As a result, it seems that the major effort should be directed toward increasing cooperation between the two levels so that total lifelong learning coverage can be assured. Whether this will occur will be determined by how educators at both levels approach the matter in their development of state-level administrative policies and in their efforts to promote the concept of lifelong learning with state legislatures.

And, finally, from these observations, several basic questions can be addressed to the audience at this assembly and, hopefully, through it to the field at large. Such questions can include: The course of the future in implementing lifelong learning can be in a direction of interinstitutional, inter-level, inter-sector cooperation or conflict—which will it be? Where will the leadership come from—education, government or private interests—or all of these together? What values in public policy formulation and institutional operations will control these decisions? If promotional effort— lobbying, if you will—is needed to strengthen the public policy framework for lifelong learning, by whom will it be provided, supported, and directed?

Clearly, the public policy posture of the several states within which lifelong learning is to develop is not yet fully formed. It is still fluid, still capable of adaptation to efforts of educational leaders to give it the character that will serve society best. Community colleges through the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges and the 1979 Policies for Lifelong Education Assembly are acting responsibly. An educator's hope is that the interest and the

nature of the action taken within the total educational enterprise will be contagious.

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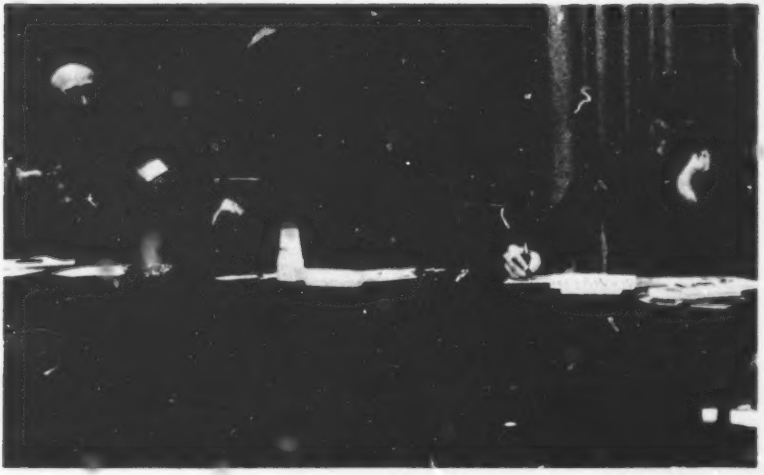

Restructuring Community Colleges for Lifelong Education

Robert H. McCabe

It is clear that over the next decade the number of persons of "college age" will decline. Although some new services have been offered by higher education, these have been held at the fringes of operations. Even with the dramatic increase in part-time enrollment in community colleges, American college operating structures remain fundamentally geared for full-time degree-seeking credit students. Most observers have predicted that higher education enrollment will decline; however, this may not occur, for there is a potential for more than balancing growth in adult lifelong education enrollment.

While many community colleges already serve adult learners, opportunities seem virtually unlimited to provide these important services that Americans obviously want. According to Rosalind Loring, "The challenge for the next decade is the development of the capacity of institutions of higher education to provide suitable educational concept and delivery systems for the potential population of adult learners. I say 'potential' because national statistics indicate that 27 million adults were participating in some form of structured learning in 1975. Of these, 6.6 million were working toward college degrees; another 1.3 million for other credit; and 17 million were taking noncredit courses. The rate of growth in the education of adults—in *noncredit*, part-time coursework alone—increased by 52% from 1972 to 1975."[1]

The opportunity is clear. The question is whether the community colleges can adapt to the growing lifelong learning needs of their communities, even in light of the prospect of declining enrollment and the negative economics of decline. Can the institutions significantly adjust their structures both to better serve their communities, and for their own financial well-being?

State Legislatures and Funding

The problems of changing existing structure and attitudes for lifelong learning are substantial. They begin with state legislatures. For years community college representatives have *sold* state legislatures on support for public higher education based on occupational education of young people. College officials have argued that the investment of state funds would help young people to gain skills that would make it possible for them to find gainful employment, thus contributing significantly to the lives of those individuals and their families, to industry, and to the state economy. A case has seldom been made for the values of lifelong learning independent of career preparation.

Over the past decade state budgets have be-

come more strained, and many significant needs *other* other than education have emerged. Improved health delivery systems, urban problems, and environmental needs are among areas competing for funds with higher education. Each area can clearly show needs beyond current funding. Thus, traditionally conservative state legislatures have labored to choose priorities for funding, and in this competition, lifelong education has not fared well.

In many states, as in Florida, the continuing education noncredit programs are expected to collect sufficient revenues from program participants to offset direct costs, and legislatures are loathe to support these programs with public funds. Yet, there are many sound reasons for support. There is growing indication that among the elderly, those with the most substantial problems (both physically and psychologically), are those who have stopped participating—who are not involved in creative and useful activities. With the upward shift in age of the American population, the preventive services of active lifelong learning programs could be of enormous financial benefit to the country, both by reducing social service costs and by keeping the large elderly population as contributing members of the society.

World economics are changing. Persons living in other countries are reaching for the same goods and services as those to which Americans have grown accustomed. The result will be for Americans to do with less material goods. Changing automobiles simply to have the new model, and shopping as a recreation are probably practices that will soon be out of the reach of most Americans. So, in the future, the good things in life will be measured more in interactive and creative experiences rather than solely in material goods. This is essential for a healthy America, and lifelong learning obviously can play a most important part in enriching the lives of Americans. The

higher education community must organize to produce a study that clearly demonstrates the economic benefits of lifelong education if legislatures are to be convinced that support for these services is worthwhile. However, the coming decline in full-time credit students adds to the opportunity for community colleges to implement lifelong learning programs. It will be far easier to sell legislatures on support for lifelong learning as a balance to full-time enrollment decline than it would be in a growth period.

Attitudes in Higher Education

Legislators are not the only groups that must be convinced of the value of lifelong learning. The higher education community itself is organized for full-time degree-seeking students, and is frustrated by the non-scholars who come to the institutions for services. Most noncredit continuing education operations are allowed to use college facilities only after credit programs have been scheduled. The pay for teaching noncredit courses is typically less than for teaching in the credit program. Noncredit teaching is done principally by part-time personnel, and these personnel seldom have access to college personnel reward systems, and an individual could seldom advance in salary schedule placement based on activities in continuing education. Most importantly, the academic faculty frequently view continuing education as unworthy of their time and talent. This is illustrated by an incident of a college art department which objected strenuously to the selection of personnel to teach in a noncredit program, as well as the course content, because the faculty felt that continuing education art courses would reflect badly on reputations.

In colleges and universities the strongest political power resides with the full-time teaching faculty. If they consider it to be less important than programs for full-time credit students, it will be difficult for lifelong learning to flourish. Thus, in most places in the country the combination of faculty attitude, legislative priorities, and

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frequent lack of administrative interest places the lifelong learning program clearly in the back of the bus.

Lifelong Students as Consumers

The structural changes necessary for community colleges to become lifelong learning institutions are so substantive as to leave considerable doubt that they can be made. The community colleges grew in the 1950's and 1960's to provide new postsecondary services not offered by four-year colleges and universities, but it could well be that the community colleges have already developed structures sufficiently immobile, and that other institutions will become the primary vehicles for lifelong learning. Hopefully, this will not be the case, for the community colleges have important resources both in staff and facilities that make them a natural base for these services. Some change has begun. A study in 1975[2] showed that community colleges were diversifying these programs, even without a change in mandate from legislatures. However, most community colleges still have much to do to really accommodate lifelong learning.

First and most important, the institutions must view lifelong learning students as consumers. Full-time freshmen might take Economics 101 to meet a requirement for graduation, even if it were poorly taught, dry, and not relevant to them. Lifelong learning students will take only what is both convenient and useful. According to K. Patricia Cross, "Adults, in contrast, see themselves as decision making members of family and community groups. They come to the learning experience having made a conscious decision about what they want to learn. They tend to be less patient than full-time students with a waste of their time, and they employ more rigorous tests of personal relevance."[3]

One of the most important implications is that the burden is on the college to offer useful and convenient services, while most current college practices are arranged for the college's conveni-

ence. Degree requirements are developed by either the institution or external agencies, with large numbers of required courses, with courses offered in semesters or quarters, and with an emphasis on the evaluation of students as opposed to the evaluation of the program. In addition, community colleges are not in this field by themselves. Churches, libraries, public school systems, entrepreneurs, and others are offering lifelong learning, and the consumers will select the better services. Thus, the institutions must have the flexibility to continuously adjust course offerings and to offer services in time patterns and locations convenient to students.

To be effective in delivering lifelong learning services, community colleges must undertake a restructuring of their operations. The changes that are needed are not cosmetic or additive, but fundamental to the operations of the colleges.

Budgeting for the Enterprise

Although there is some variation, for the most part college budgets begin from the assumption that the full-time staff that was needed the previous year will be needed again. In many cases, declining departments have retained their full-time staff while growing departments have had to get by with previous levels of staffing. This has resulted in greater capability to shift staff to the areas with greater requirement.[4] However, few institutions have used that capability for load balancing, and even fewer are able to shift credit FTE faculty to continuing education. In fact, the most obvious adjustments that have been made in college budgets in reaction to financial stress have been to pull back towards the core of the program. Instructional materials, outreach, and continuing education programs have had the harshest treatment in the budget process. As one would expect, that which was most valued—the traditional academic program—has been preserved. These practices are counter-productive for the fiscal health of colleges, for they are withdrawing to programs that

are almost certain to decline. For institutional self-preservation, the potential growth programs in lifelong learning need an equal opportunity for a fair share of the budget. Only in this way will it be possible to balance declining with growing programs.

To change, budget processes can no longer begin with the assumption that the historical distribution of personnel and other resources is a fair basis for projecting future budgets. Rather, all of the programs that are to be offered must be considered, and the personnel and other budget requirements analyzed on a competitive basis. Without preconditions, forecasts of enrollment in all programs must be made on the basis of forecasting staff requirements, and there must be procedures for shifting part-time/overload funds, and full-time personnel to continuing education roles. With reasonable planning, part-time/overload funds should be available to shift. There is seldom long term commitment as exists with full-time faculty. Making such changes will be anything but easy, and it will be even more difficult in unionized colleges where labor contracts tend to preserve historical expenditure and staffing patterns.

Of course, all is dependent on obtaining agreement from legislatures to fund noncredit programs, since expenditures must be matched to income. It would be of no use to shift personnel to desired services if the programs are not funded. Rather, institutions would continue to withdraw towards the core of their operations—the segment that is certain to decline in the next decade.

Personnel Policies

In most colleges, personnel policies have been designed for full-time academic employees. Arrangements for others are jury-rigged. Typically in community colleges, load formulas require 15 credits of teaching in a semester. This load is based on an assumption of substantial outside preparation for each class. If there is academic rank, the promotion criteria are heavily weighted

to advance degrees. Where there is no rank, salaries are scheduled so that advanced degrees are even more important. Continuing education pay is usually based on an hourly rate that is far lower than that for teaching in the credit program. The credit program is based on loads computed on a term basis, while continuing education programs may be of any length starting from one meeting of one hour. Thus, the task of adjusting personnel policies for lifelong learning bristles with snags.

Faculty members who change from academic credit load and pay to noncredit arrangements would be giving up a great deal. The only reasonable solution would appear to be a compromise between the two sets of policies. This would provide some needed gain to noncredit teachers, and a more palatable adjustment for credit teachers. This should be financially possible, while utilizing credit load arrangements for noncredit programs might not be; the spread for course offerings for noncredit is so much greater than in lower division credit that lower mean class sizes are almost a certainty. In addition, systems should be designed to accommodate both term and hourly load considerations for the same individual. Further, teachers should be able to earn advancement while working in the continuing education program, and salary advancement criteria other than acquisition of advanced degrees must be introduced. Since there will be less stability in the offerings, an increasing share of the program must be handled by part-time personnel while maintaining the control of quality that is inherent when utilizing full-time staff.

Facilities for Learning

A pressing concern for community colleges during the 1950's and 1960's was the development of facilities. Now most institutions have reasonably adequate physical plants. However, the facilities were not designed for lifelong learning students. Many urban community colleges

already have bi-modal space utilization patterns—peaking in the morning for the full-time students, and in the evenings for part-time and continuing education. Many operate numerous outreach centers, especially in the evenings. At Miami-Dade Community College from 7:00 to 10:00 p.m. there are no open classrooms on any of the campuses, and there are more than 150 outreach centers in the operation.

The emerging enrollment patterns forecast a need for a different distribution of space than currently exists. Continuing education students make less use of support facilities (library, gymnasium, student centers), and heavy utilization of classrooms. The increased classroom need can frequently be met by use of the available community facilities, which are often more convenient to students. The most difficult space problem is for offices. Despite utilization of off-campus space for classrooms, the personnel who direct and teach in the programs need office space, and this is seldom considered in facilities formulas.

A further problem that impacts space is the delivery of appropriate counseling, advising, registration, and other services at numerous outreach locations, some of which may have only one or two classes. This both requires additional office space on campus and some mobile facilities for off campus work. Should the credit enrollment decline as is predicted, it is possible that many institutions will be overbuilt in support services while being short of offices. This would result in higher than necessary per-student overhead for plant, and drain funds that otherwise might be used for program. It would seem advisable at this time for colleges that are still building to look carefully at the type of facilities that are being built, and to consider the needs of increased lifelong learning enrollment and reduced full-time credit enrollment.

Many community colleges have decided to again test all first-time students. Because of requirements of both federal and state governments, colleges each term collect and update considerable demographic information concerning students. Many also collect information to be funneled to clubs and organizations. BEOG applications are expected to be filed in the spring for the fall term. In order to gain better control of scheduling and class sizes, many institutions have developed systems for most students to register well before the time that classes begin. Many community colleges are funded by the state through full-time equivalent or average daily attendance formulas which carry enrollment on a specific day in a term on the assumption that classes are all offered for a semester, trimester, or quarter.

Virtually all of these policies and procedures, and many more, are designed for full-time credit students or at the least part-time degree-seeking students. Our policies are frequently frustrating and irrelevant to the lifelong learning student. The community colleges, with the cooperation of state and federal government, need to design policies and procedures that fit the needs of lifelong learning students, and which are developed with them in mind.

There certainly will be trade-offs. For example, colleges cannot have complete demographic information about students without the students filling out forms each time they register. To students, these forms have the appearance of unnecessary red tape. Registration and student record systems need to be developed that are not based on an assumption of term enrollment or traditional time blocks. From a records and registration standpoint, time should be measured and controlled not in semester credits or time blocks, but in units of 15 minutes or less, so that any combinations can be utilized. Currently,

most scheduling management deals with 17 to 25 time blocks projected over a term, and classes with unusual time combinations are dealt with as exceptions. In a college dominated by lifelong learning, hundreds of time combinations would need to be considered and there would be a continuous, rolling registration. More sophisticated management would be required to achieve acceptable staff and facility utilization with the expanded variables.

Lifelong learning students are more self-directed, however, in making their decisions. They want an opportunity to discuss programs and goals with the college representative. While there are other support services that lifelong learning students do not utilize at the same level as do other students, they desire advisement and counseling services to a greater degree than traditional students. The key in support services and procedures is to design a system based on the needs of the lifelong learning student, not to squeeze them into existing systems.

Organization of Programs

American colleges are typically organized along departmental lines in academic areas with separate administrative services and student services components. The discipline-oriented departmental structure decentralizes academic decision making, and fosters parochial and unresponsive positions that are not attuned to student needs. The separation of the three divisions—academic, student services, and administrative—can result in poor orchestration of student programs. This organizational structure is better suited for the universities of the past, when programs were quite stable and the institution decided on what was best for students.

For lifelong learning programs there should be a close integration of student personnel services and the learning program. Counseling and advisement services will help to shape the program offerings, and must take into account the potential services of the instructional area. Per-

sonnel of the instructional area must be in a position to organize appropriate programs without regard for discipline lines. Otherwise, departmental structures could be a serious handicap.

Much of the work in continuing education is involved with identification of needs and program organization. There must be effective communication throughout the college service area. Students will either call for information or respond to advertising, rather than contact the college by mail. Therefore, the organizational structure will include a group involved with program planning, communications, staffing, and the more complex scheduling and registration programs. There should be a compensating reduction in other support personnel, a decrease in student-teacher ratio, and an increase in the percentage of the program taught by part-time personnel.

The mix of personnel will be quite different, and the continuous program changes will necessitate much closer communication among the organizational units. All in all, major adjustments in organization appear to be necessary.

Program Flexibility

Much as banks now have 24-hour tellers and other customer-oriented services, community colleges must design their programs for the convenience and for the needs of their clientele. Lifelong learners have little patience with programs that are not relevant; they are not concerned with college requirements, but in what they feel they want and need. Thus, the course offerings must be flexible and diverse. Economic planning must recognize the faculty productivity decline that is inherent in program diversity.

While it is possible to develop the daytime credit schedule based on the evolution of schedules from previous terms, a large share of the programs needed and desired by lifelong learning students changes significantly from year to year. In addition, the location and time of courses must be suited to the convenience of the student. For some groups the concentrated one-week

course might be right; for some a weekend seminar; for others, courses that meet once a week for five, ten, 15, or more weeks; self-paced arrangements that can be begun any day and taken on a convenient schedule. The most important factors in developing the learning program are diversity and individualization—designing for the needs of the students rather than the needs of the institution. Such change in the operational methods of community colleges is a challenge of significant magnitude.

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Report of the 1979 Assembly

The 1979 Assembly met on January 8-10 at Airlie House, Warrenton, Virginia. The theme of the Assembly was Policies for Lifelong Education. *The following statement was drafted by George B. Vaughan following discussions by Assembly participants. The statement was reviewed by participants at the final session and is presented here for further study, discussion and action.*

Lifelong education is moving from theory to fact for increasing numbers of persons in our society. The growing complexities of earning a living and being a competent participant in the community are making this development a necessity. It is no longer feasible to plan on a period of education that extends only through the late teens or early twenties to carry us through life in the latter part of the twentieth century. If our lives are to be fulfilling, if our communities

are to be livable, if our industry is to be productive, if our society is to be healthy, we must have opportunity for education throughout our lives.

Many Facets Meet Needs

Our educational system has developed many facets to meet this need: Schools, colleges, churches, libraries, museums, businesses, unions, the Armed Forces, and other agencies have developed responsive educational services. Education in the arts and sciences, education for occupations and for leisure, are becoming available to more persons, in more places, and at more times. Useful patterns of cooperation among providers of these services have developed in many instances.

The policy framework, however, has not kept up with the developing needs and the variety of responses. Laws, regulations, guidelines, directives, funding formulas, and other elements that make up the policy framework need to be brought up to date—along with the data and attitudes from which such policies are developed. The changing demography and lifestyle of our society must be recognized in educational policies and practices. Assessments of educational needs, flexible responses to those needs, cooperation among agencies must be facilitated, not frustrated, by the policies of public or private agencies.

We believe the leadership for needed changes should be initiated at local levels through assessments of local needs for lifelong education made cooperatively by the institutions and citizens concerned. The support of public and private agencies and of local, state, and federal governments should be sought through unified action based on well-documented needs and priorities.

To address this need, the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, in cooperation with other concerned organizations, and with support from the W.K. Kellogg Foundation, convened a national assembly in January

1979 to discuss the preceding background papers and to formulate the following recommendations, beginning with a *Bill of Rights* for the lifelong learner:

Bill of Rights

Every adult American has the right to continue to learn throughout life;

Every adult American has the right to equal opportunity for access to relevant learning opportunities at each stage of life;

Diversity and access to educational opportunity are important to democracy in the United States;

Any index of the quality of life in the United States includes opportunities for growth and self-actualization as a right of the learning society;

Neither age, nor sex, nor color, nor creed, nor ethnic background, nor marital status, nor economic status, nor disability should create barriers to the opportunity to continue to grow through participation in organized learning activities;

Coping, living, and working are dimensions which exemplify the range of learning needs of the learning society;

Public investment in the learning society is an investment in human capital and in human condition.

With the above in mind, the following recommendations and observations are made by the Assembly.

Recommendations of the Assembly

To community colleges, the Assembly recommends—

1. That community colleges make an institution-wide commitment to lifelong education.

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Institutional policies should reflect this institutional commitment. Policies and practices that are barriers to lifelong education should be revised.

2. That community colleges join with other community organizations to sponsor local assessments and other activities that will result in a current picture of unmet lifelong educational needs. Implicit in this recommendation is the belief that community colleges can work with other organizations to solve social problems. Moreover, community colleges should develop programs which respond to the identified needs of specific segments of the population, such as the economically and educationally disadvantaged, minorities, women, older persons, and physically handicapped.

3. That such assessments of needs then be translated into statements of priorities that can be used by policy makers. The statements of needs and priorities should be developed in cooperation with interested community organizations. The interested organizations should unite in presenting their statements of needs and priorities to local, state, and federal funding sources, as well as to business, unions, foundations, and other private agencies that can provide support.

4. That community colleges cooperate with other community agencies to conduct hearings on lifelong education and how to best meet identified needs. Recommendations should be made known to the appropriate community and political leaders.

5. That community colleges collaborate with other community agencies to define the clientele to be served through lifelong education, to shape educational programs to meet

consumer needs, and to provide access for all clientele into appropriate programs.

6. That community colleges seek private and public funding to enhance the professional development of counselors, faculty members, and administrators so all staff may better meet the needs of the adult learner.

7. That faculty members be aware of the roles they play in regard to lifelong education and receive special training in working with adult learners.

8. That college presidents take the initiative in bringing together community representatives from all organizations and institutions which provide lifelong education experiences and that the various groups join together to sponsor a community educational information center. The information center would offer educational brokering services, information on various resources, as well as counseling and referral services. Local, state, and federal support should be sought for the information centers.

9. That community college trustees familiarize themselves with local needs for lifelong education and provide local leadership in the development of policies to facilitate lifelong learning services. Trustees should also help interpret the services to the community to help build support for them.

To the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges, the Assembly recommends—

1. That AACJC and other interested organizations cooperate in addressing the President of the United States regarding the inclusion of the concept of a learning society as part of the United States position on domestic as well as international human rights.

2. That AACJC propose to the President of the United States that a White House Conference on lifelong education be convened.

3. That the AACJC seek the development of additional national clearinghouse services on lifelong education for the purpose of collecting pertinent information on lifelong education from diverse sources and that this information be widely disseminated. The National Institute of Education should be approached as a possible source of funding for such additional clearinghouse services.

4. That the AACJC sponsor a "National Issues Forum" as a model for a series of community forums on lifelong education. And that the AACJC community forums mechanism involve institutions, museums, businesses, industries, labor, and other institutions of higher education, plus other schools and agencies presently performing an educational function. It is recommended that AACJC ask the President to announce the beginning of community forums through the use of the mass media.

5. That the AACJC continue its present relationship with the National Chamber of Commerce and that it work with the Chamber and other national organizations to develop linkages between business and colleges for furthering lifelong education as a means of developing human capital investment in the United States.

6. That the AACJC take the lead in developing a coalition of organizations and groups concerned with lifelong education. Among the groups which might be included in such a coalition are the National Council of State Directors of Community and Junior Colleges, the Education Commission of the States, the State Higher Education Execu-

tive Officers, the Urban League, labor unions, educational broadcasters, student organizations and others concerned with lifelong education. Moreover, the AACJC should elicit the cooperation of other higher education associations and join with them to examine the role of corporate leadership, equity of student financial aid, increasing accessibility, counseling, and other factors influencing lifelong education.

7. That the AACJC give top priority to giving leadership to its member institutions in order that they may become institutions for lifelong education. The member institutions should be encouraged to cooperate with other institutions and agencies in their communities in the development and delivery of lifelong education services.

8. That the AACJC make every effort to communicate openly and directly with the learners and solicit their recommendations as policies and procedures on lifelong education are developed.

9. That the AACJC work cooperatively with the national organizations of mayors, governors, and state legislators to implement policies more favorable to lifelong education.

To the Federal and State governments, the Assembly recommends—

1. That strong support be given to the current national policy stated in Title I-B, Section 131 (8) of the Higher Education Act which states: "American society should have as a goal the availability of appropriate opportunities for lifelong learning for all its citizens without regard to restrictions of previous education or training, sex, age, handicapping conditions, social or ethnic background, or economic circumstances."

2. That in the Congressional review of the Higher Education Act, special attention be given to the consolidation of HEA Title IA, IB, and X and to an effective lifelong education act. Special attention should be given to urban-suburban concerns providing incentives for utilizing the resources of city governments (i.e., CETA, revenue-sharing) and the resources of postsecondary education institutions to cooperatively meet the lifelong education needs of urban-suburban citizens. Further, congressional concerns must be moved toward the enactment of an Urban Extension Act which would reduce the fragmentation of current federal programs aimed at funding lifelong learning programs for urban citizens, and provide federal funding incentives for the development of urban extension programs (similar to the present time-honored cooperative extension programs).

3. That an "Urban Extension Act" be enacted to provide federal funding incentives for the development of urban extension programs similar to the rural cooperative extension program. The resources of city governments and institutions of postsecondary education should be utilized cooperatively in meeting the lifelong education needs of urban citizens.

4. That interstate projects for lifelong education be established and supported by state boards and coordinating agencies concerned with education.

5. That state governments develop funding models to facilitate lifelong education among public and private sectors.

6. That state agencies responsible for lifelong education work to develop communication

networks and coordinated planning between public and private agencies.

7. That the Education Commission of the States urge each state to develop a positive and forward-looking educational master plan that takes into account lifelong education needs. This planning would be similar to that which took place some 20 years ago when it was necessary to meet the "tidal wave of enrollment."

8. That the special circumstances of lifelong education be recognized in funding mechanisms such as state aid formulas, student financial aid formulas, and tuition charges. Included in revisions would be provisions for state aid to part-time students and revised standards for determining aid for independent students. Economic status of the individual or community should not be allowed to stifle the motivation for lifelong education.

9. That the federal government provide funding through the states for an on-going educational needs assessment as well as a system of educational brokering. The agricultural extension service may be an appropriate model in some instances.

10. That each state appoint a task force on lifelong education to ensure a continual dialogue between provider and consumer of lifelong education, to improve the delivery system of lifelong education, to conduct hearings at the local level on lifelong education, and to arrange for community task forces on lifelong education.

11. That present federally-funded manpower programs, such as CETA, be oriented as much as possible along the lines of lifelong education.

12. That the federal government develop policy guidelines for the improvement of information sharing, communications, consultation and planning for federally-supported lifelong educational efforts.

13. That the National Institute of Education fund research on lifelong education efforts to include further cost-benefit studies.

14. That federal legislation be enacted to liberalize allowable deductions and provide personal income tax reductions for education expenditures—credit, noncredit, vocational, and avocational programs.

15. That states and federal policies eliminate restrictions regarding lifelong education. Among the restrictions which should be examined and perhaps eliminated are prohibitions against unemployment insurance beneficiaries enrolling in educational programs and restrictive welfare policies affecting participation.

16. That accrediting and licensing bodies take into account education policies in their review processes.

17. That state and federal agencies strongly support the position that a well-funded lifelong education program is essential to the achievement of our national goals of lowering the rate of inflation, increasing productivity or workers, and decreasing unemployment.

18. That states change the current patterns of funding based on the generation of full-time equivalent students. The state should consult with the AACJC in their efforts to revise funding formulas.

In regard to relationships with labor, business, and industry, the Assembly recommends—

1. In addition to the importance of federal, state, local, and foundation fiscal resources, the Assembly and other advocates of lifelong education should be aware of the great potential for industrial capitalization. New markets for technological development in counseling, referral, and instruction are already producing large numbers of dollars for educational development.
2. That business, industry, and labor seek the development of periodic, paid educational leaves to allow workers to participate in lifelong educational experiences throughout their work lives.
3. That business and industry be asked to contribute to lifelong education needs of workers, especially when such changes as relocation or retooling of an industry take place.
4. That the development of financing of lifelong education programs be jointly discussed by leaders of industry, labor, and institutions of higher education. These discussions should result in specific proposals that will be mutually supported.

To all persons concerned with lifelong education, the Assembly recommends—

1. That support be given to the concept of lifelong education as a means for all citizens to develop competencies which will enable them to live productive and satisfying lives.
2. That in light of the changing needs and values of our society, the need to strengthen counseling and adult decision making, and in order to provide a sounder basis for future

programs in lifelong education, the federal government and the foundations should support research, development, and dissemination which provide new insights into adult life changes, adult self-awareness patterns, and the demands and rewards for lifelong education.

3. That there be a continuous study of national needs and issues which may be met through lifelong education. Particular attention should be paid to the arts and humanities as educational resources.

4. That educational agencies reexamine their mission and service priorities in light of changes in society in order to better provide for the needs of new clientele such as older and part-time students. These agencies should cooperate in conducting comprehensive community needs assessments.

5. That all agencies, institutions and individuals concerned with the delivery of lifelong education keep in mind the needs of the educational consumer and that the consumer of educational services be consulted regularly regarding programs of lifelong education. Consultation should take place prior to the development of courses, programs, or other activities which will influence the lifelong education of the individual.

While it is obvious that the above recommendations do not cover all aspects of lifelong education, they provide the basis for immediate action and future planning. Moreover, the recommendations and observations should serve to point out that development of lifelong education is simultaneously occurring through a number of avenues. It is now time for the policy framework to be brought up-to-date so it will facilitate further development of lifelong education services for all persons.

Assembly Participants

1. Jacquilyn Amperse
   U.S. Association of Evening Students
   2802 West MacKenzie Drive
   Phoenix, Arizona 85017

2. Jeanne Aronson, Director
   Older Americans Program
   American Association of Community and Junior Colleges
   One Dupont Circle, N.W.
   Washington, D.C. 20036

3. Nancie Blatt, Trustee
   Schoolcraft College
   19482 Parker
   Livonia, Michigan 48152

4. Douglas F. Bodwell, Director
   Educational Activities
   Corporation for Public Broadcasting
   1111 16th Street, N.W.
   Washington, D.C. 20037

5. David W. Breneman
   Senior Fellow
   Brookings Institution
   Community College Study
   1775 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W.
   Washington, D.C. 20036

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6. John Cavan
Dean of Community Services
Mohawk Valley Community College
1101 Sherman Drive
Utica, New York 13501

7. John E. Cleek
President
Johnson County Community College
College Blvd. at Quivira Road
Overland Park, Kansas 66210

8. Lewis Cockerill
Dean of Instruction
Coastal Carolina Community College
444 Western Boulevard
Jacksonville, North Carolina 28540

9. Wilbur Cohen
Dean
School of Education
University of Michigan
Ann Arbor, Michigan 48104

10. John J. Connolly
President
Dutchess Community College
Pendell Road
Poughkeepsie, New York 12601

11. Robert L. Craig
Director of Communications
American Society of Training and Development
One Dupont Circle, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

12. K. Patricia Cross
Senior Research Psychologist
Educational Testing Service
1947 Center Street
Berkeley, California 94904

13. Lloyd H. Davis
Executive Director
National University Extension Association
One Dupont Circle, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

14. Ann M. Diehl, President
U.S. Association of Evening Students
950 North Erie Avenue
Lindenhurst, New York 11757

15. Robert Dolphin
U.S. Association of Evening Students
329 West 112th Street
New York, New York 10026

16. Brian Donnelly, Dean
Center for Urban-Metropolitan Development
Cuyahoga Community College District/Metropolitan Campus
2900 Community College Avenue
Cleveland, Ohio 44115

17. Russell Edgerton
Executive Director
American Association of Higher Education
One Dupont Circle, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

18. Diane Eisenberg, Director
Community Forums Office
American Association of Community and Junior Colleges
One Dupont Circle, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

19. Carol Eliason, Director
Center for Women's Opportunities
American Association of Community and Junior Colleges
One Dupont Circle, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

20. Arlon E. Elser
Program Director
W. K. Kellogg Foundation
400 North Avenue
Battle Creek, Michigan 49016

21. Paul L. Elsner
Chancellor
Maricopa Community College District
3910 E. Washington
Phoenix, Arizona 85002

22. Dale Ensign
Vice President
Husky Oil Company
1800 M Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

23. Forest D. Etheredge
President
Waubonsee Community College
Illinois Route 47 at Herter Road
Sugar Grove, Illinois 60554

24. Suzanne Fletcher, Director
Center for Community Education
American Association of
Community and Junior Colleges
One Dupont Circle, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

25. Jamison Gilder, Director
Policies for Lifelong Education
American Association of
Community and Junior Colleges
One Dupont Circle, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

26. Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr.
President
American Association of
Community and Junior Colleges
One Dupont Circle, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

27. Donald H. Godbold
Vice Chancellor
Peralta Community College
District
300 Grand Avenue
Oakland, California 94610

28. Jeanne M. Goddard
Trustee
Daytona Beach Community College
602 Riverside Drive
Ormond Beach, Florida 32074

29. James F. Gollattscheck
President
Valencia Community College
P.O. Box 3028
Orlando, Florida 32802

30. Shirley B. Gordon
President
Highline Community College
South 240th & Pacific Hwy.
Midway, Washington 98031

31. Cecil L. Groves
President
Austin Community College
P.O. Box 2165
Austin, Texas 78768

32. Richard H. Hagemeyer
President
Central Piedmont Community
College
P.O. Box 4009
Charlotte, North Carolina 28204

33. Linda Hartsock
Executive Director
Adult Education Association and
Editor, *Lifelong Learning:*
The Adult Years
810 Eighteenth Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20006

34. Harold Hodgkinson
Executive Director
The Professional Institute
American Management Association
1800 K Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20006

35. James E. Houlihan, Jr.
President
Middlesex Community College
Springs Road
Bedford, Massachusetts 01730

36. Helena Howe
Director
Community College Unit
U.S. Office of Education, ROB #3
7th and D Streets, S.W.
Washington, D.C. 20202

37. Kevin Hunter
U.S. Association of Evening
Students
2504 King Court
Chesapeake, Virginia 23324

38. Brent M. Johnson
Executive Director
State Board for Community
Colleges
Jeffrey Building, 16 Francis Street
Annapolis, Maryland 21401

39. David F. Johnson, Trustee
Prince George's Community
College
9000 Rockville Pike
Building 4
Bethesda, Maryland 20014

125

40. Gloria Johnson, Director
Education and Women's Activities
International Union of Electrical Radio and Machine Workers
1126 16th Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

41. R. DeWayne Justice
U.S. Association of Evening Students
Route 1, Box 662
Peoria, Arizona 85345

42. William R. Keel
President
Belleville Area College
2500 Carlyle Road
Belleville, Illinois 62221

43. William A. Keim
President
Maple Woods Community College
2601 N.E. Barry Road
Kansas City, Missouri 64156

44. Marilyn Kressel, Director
Adult Learning and Public Broadcasting Project
American Association of Community and Junior Colleges
One Dupont Circle, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

45. Norman Kurland
Executive Director
Adult Learning Services
The State Education Department
The University of the State of New York
Albany, New York 12234

46. William J. Laidlaw
President
Whatcom Community College
5217 Northwest Road
Bellington, Washington 98225

47. Ben Lawrence
Executive Director
National Center for Higher Education Management Systems
P.O. Drawer P
Boulder, Colorado 80302

48. Bernard Luskin
President
Coastline Community College
10231 Slater Avenue
Fountain Valley, California 92708

49. Francis U. Macy
Executive Director
National Center for Educational Brokering
1211 Connecticut Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

50. Fred Manley, Director
Office of Research
North Carolina Community Colleges
State Education Building
Raleigh, North Carolina 27611

51. S. V. Martorana
Research Associate and Professor of Higher Education
Pennsylvania State University
Center for the Study of Higher Education
322 Pond Laboratory
University Park, Pennsylvania 16802

52. Robert McCabe
Executive Vice President
Miami-Dade Community College
District Administration
1101 Southwest 104th Street
Miami, Florida 33156

53. Richard McCarthy
Associate Director
National Advisory Council on Extension and Continuing Education
425 13th Street, Suite 529
Washington, D.C. 20004

54. Don McNeil
President
University of Mid-America
P.O. Box 82006
Lincoln, Nebraska 68501

55. Carrie Meek, Director
Division of Community Services
Miami-Dade Community College (North Campus)
11380 N.W. 27th Avenue
Miami, Florida 33167

56. Richard M. Millard, Director
Postsecondary Education Department
Education Commission of the States
1860 Lincoln Street, Suite 300
Denver, Colorado 80295

57. Jerry Miller
Director
Office of Educational Credit
American Council on Education
One Dupont Circle, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

58. Rexford G. Moon, Jr.
Managing Director
Future Directions for a Learning Society
The College Board
888 Seventh Avenue
New York, New York 10019

59. Gunder Myran
President
Washtenaw Community College
4800 East Huron River Drive
Ann Arbor, Michigan 48106

60. Susan C. Nelson
Brookings Institution
Community College Study
1775 Massachusetts Avenue, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

61. Jean Netherton, Provost
Northern Virginia Community College (Alexandria Campus)
3001 North Beauregard Street
Alexandria, Virginia 22311

62. William E. Oriol
Staff Director
United States Senate
Special Committee on Aging
Washington, D.C. 20510

63. Jules Pagano, President
Massachusetts Board of Regional Community Colleges
470 Atlantic Avenue
Boston, Massachusetts 02110

64. Dale Parnell, President
COMBASE and
Superintendent-President
San Joaquin Delta College
5151 Pacific Avenue
Stockton, California 95207

65. Jess H. Parrish, President
Shelby State Community College
Chairman of the Board of Directors, AACJC
P.O. Box 4568
Memphis, Tennessee 38104

66. Laban Peachey
President
Hesston College
Hesston, Kansas 67062

67. J. W. Peltason
President
American Council on Education
One Dupont Circle, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

68. Richard E. Peterson
Senior Research Psychologist
Educational Testing Service
1947 Center Street
Berkeley, California 94704

69. Carl H. Pforzheimer, Jr.
Carl H. Pforzheimer & Company
70 Pine Street
New York, New York 10005

70. Bill J. Priest
Chancellor
Dallas County Community College District
701 Elm Street
Dallas, Texas 75202

71. Donald E. Puyear
President
Central Virginia Community College
Fort Hill Station, Box 4098
Lynchburg, Virginia 24502

72. William L. Ramsey, President
Milwaukee Area Technical College
Council on Occupational Education
1015 North 6th Street
Milwaukee, Wisconsin 53203

73. Penny Richardson
Associate Professor
University of Southern California
Department of Higher and Postsecondary Education
Waite Phillips Hall
University Park
Los Angeles, California 90007

127

74. Cornelius Robbins
Associate Chancellor
Community College Affairs
State University of New York
University Plaza
Albany, New York 12246

75. George H. Robertson
President
Mohawk Valley Community College
1101 Sherman Drive
Utica, New York 13501

76. Salvatore G. Rotella
President
Chicago City-Wide College
209 North Michigan Avenue
Chicago, Illinois 60601

77. Robert Rue
Acting President
South Central Community College
60 Sargent Drive
New Haven, Connecticut 06511

78. John Stagg
Director of Education
Graphic Arts International Union
1900 L Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

79. Bill F. Stewart
Superintendent
Kirkwood Community College
6301 Kirkwood Blvd., S.W.
Cedar Rapids, Iowa 52406

80. Herbert E. Striner, Dean
School of Business Administration
Hamilton Building 109
Mass. & Nebraska Avenues, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20016

81. Robert W. Sullins
Community College Program Area Leader
Division of Administration and Educational Activities
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University
Blacksburg, Virginia 24061

82. Paul Tremper
Executive Director
National Community Education Association
1030 15th Street, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20005

83. George Vaughan
President
Piedmont Virginia Community College
Route 6, Box 1-A
Charlottesville, Virginia 22901

84. Robert N. Waggener
Adjutant General
Headquarters U.S. Army
Training and Doctrine Command
Fort Monroe, Virginia 23651

85. Larry J. Warford
Assistant to the Dean of Instruction
Lane Community College
4000 East 30th Avenue
Eugene, Oregon 97405

86. Norman Watson
Chancellor
Coast Community College District
1370 Adams Avenue
Costa Mesa, California 92626

87. Marvin Weiss
Dean of Community Services
Clackamas Community College
19600 South Molalla Avenue
Oregon City, Oregon 97045

88. Roger Yarrington
Vice President
American Association of Community and Junior Colleges
One Dupont Circle, N.W.
Washington, D.C. 20036

AACJC Support Staff:

Mona Lapides
Jean Thurston

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